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ABSTRACT

This guide lists and defines concepts from seven social science disciplines and presents strategies for concept teaching in the social sciences at the elementary and secondary levels. The guide's four main sections are Theoretical Introduction, Concepts from the Social Sciences, Teaching Strategies, and the Future. The Theoretical Introduction section discusses what a concept is and outlines a general social studies curriculum structure which relates concepts, skills, and content into a system for program planning. The section on Concepts from the Social Sciences, which comprises the major portion of the guide, lists and defines concepts in anthropology-sociology, economics, geography, history, political science, and psychology. Focus questions which teachers can use with students are provided for the concepts. The Teaching Strategies section discusses procedures for teaching the concepts of the preceding section and contains a sample lesson plan. The guide concludes with a brief outline of subjects to be included in future volumes. (Author/RM)

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GUIDE TO

CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

IN THE

SOCIAL STUDIES

by

James G. Lengel
and
H. Donn McCafferty

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A GUIDE TO CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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1975

SECTION I: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

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HOW TO USE THIS SOCIAL STUDIES GUIDE

Not all of the material in this Guide will be useful to you in the work you are doing. This page will explain the contents of the Guide and their organization, so you can refer to the proper section. The Guide is written as a unified and integrated document, but most of the sections can be used alone.

The Guide is divided into four main sections, with contents as follows:

		Page
I.	General Introduction	
	A. How to Use This Guide	2
	B. Commissioner's Message: Robert A. Withey	5
	C. Foreword	6
	This section should be read completely before using any part of the Guide. The purpose and extent of the Guide is explained here in this brief introduction.	
II.	Theoretical Introduction	
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	D. Knowledge and Process in Social Studies	24
	This section outlines an overall view of philosophy and nature of a conceptual approach to social studies. The nature of concepts, their source in social science, and their learning by students are discussed here in this series of articles.	
III.	Concepts from the Social Sciences	
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F. Political Science 80

G. Psychology 89

The major concepts from each field are explained in this section. Charts are included which suggest how each concept may be interpreted at various levels. Questions to focus students on the concepts are suggested.

IV. Teaching Strategies

A. Concept Teaching Strategies 98

B. Sample Lesson Plan for Concept Teaching 99

Procedures for teaching the concepts of Section III are specified in this section, with sample forms for a lesson plan and some suggested evaluation techniques.

V. The Future

A brief outline of the subjects to be included in future volumes of the Social Studies Guide. 107

Other sections will be added to this Guide as they are developed. We realize that concepts alone do not make a social studies curriculum. A major section on the skills of social studies, and how to teach and evaluate them, is in the works right now. Another section on the place of values in social studies is in the planning stages. Looseleaf sections such as these, and other appropriate material, will be part of this ever-changing curriculum guide.

SUGGESTIONS FOR USING THE GUIDE TO EXAMINE YOUR SCHOOL'S PROGRAM

This Guide is designed to be used in several different ways to improve social studies programs in Vermont schools:

(a) An individual teacher may use the Guide to examine his or her course(s) or grade(s) as to how well they are developing the concepts listed here. Each topic you have the pupils study, and every activity you have them engage in should have as its clear purpose the learning of one or more of these concepts. You may wish to discontinue those parts of your program which are not aimed at these concepts, and add activities to develop concepts not presently taught.

(b) A social studies department or school district may examine its goals, objectives, and course sequence in terms of the Guide. Do the present goals include the learning of these concepts by the pupils? The goals and objectives of your program should center on the pupils' learning of these concepts. You may wish to modify your program objectives to fit in with the Guide, or to change the focus of your present courses and concentrate on the learning of these concepts.

(c) A department, school, or school district which is just beginning a curriculum development process for social studies may use the Guide as the basis for their program. The section on "Curriculum Structure and Content" would be particularly relevant to this kind of effort.

The forthcoming supplement to this Guide on social studies skills development will also be important for curriculum development and improvement in Vermont schools. The learning of research skills, map skills, and reasoning skills is the complement to concept learning in social studies programs.

Many teachers, schools, and districts have already designed their programs and courses with these concepts and skills in mind. We hope this Guide will assist them to complete their curriculum planning, and serve as a central resource to others who are just beginning.

MESSAGE FROM THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

Social studies should be an interesting and relevant area of the school's curriculum. It is also the area with the most diverse objectives, ranging from citizenship behavior to geographic knowledge, from values clarification to consumer education. This guide is the result of an effort to define social studies in terms of the ideas the Vermont pupils should develop while they are in school. The Guide also attempts to put the diverse objectives of social studies into a common framework of concepts and skills.

The programs we jointly develop in Vermont schools will build on the natural advantages of our children, and prepare them to participate in human society. Pupils must develop the ability to understand human kind and its motivations, to discover themselves, and to make sense of their social environment. They must also learn to ask "why" and to seek their own solutions to problems. This Guide should prove useful in designing the programs that will help to do this.

The Social Studies Committee under the leadership of Donn McCafferty and James Lengel has assembled a collection of useful articles and definitions for social studies teaching. The Department appreciates their efforts and the work of the many contributors to this Guide. We hope you will use it to develop and strengthen quality programs for Vermont pupils.

ROBERT A. WITHEY
COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

FOREWORD

Each Vermont school district must develop its own social studies program, tailored to the needs and interests of the community and its students, but respecting the disciplines of the social sciences. Responsibility for program development is at the local level. This Guide is designed to help and encourage you to carry out this responsibility in an effective way.

The program you develop must be arranged on a strong intellectual framework. It must take into consideration the overall purposes, or ends, you envision for the educational process. It must respect the work that has been done in the social sciences: the concepts, generalizations, and processes which have proven useful to people as they have attempted to understand, explain, and improve their world. The fields of anthropology, sociology, geography, history, economics, political science, and psychology should all be considered as sources for social studies curriculum.

Besides the concepts of the social sciences, there are skills and processes, from the social sciences and elsewhere, which are an essential part of a person's education in social studies. The scientific method applied to social data, including problem identification, hypothesizing, data gathering, and conclusion-making, must be a part of the curriculum in every school year. Other skills, such as map and globe reading, historical perspective-taking, and a general commitment to the use of rational processes in thinking, must also be made a part of the social studies program for every child from kindergarten through high school.

The comprehensive program we envision cannot come about through patchwork approaches or efforts at a single grade level. A total school or school district must develop its program in concert. The Vermont State Department of Education is prepared to offer assistance to local districts in program development in social studies in the form of staff workshops, training, and sample materials, through the Social Studies Consultant in the Division of Elementary and Secondary Education.

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ENDS IN EDUCATION: The First Consideration

In Plato's Apology, Socrates says to Callias: "If your two sons were only colts or bullocks we could have hired a trainer for them to make them beautiful and good, and all that they should be; and our trainer would have been, I take it, a horseman or a farmer. But now that they are human beings, have you any trainer in your mind for them? Is there any one who understands what a man and a citizen ought to be?"

ENDS IN EDUCATION: THE FIRST CONSIDERATION

A Position on Educational Goals

The most important issue confronting educators and educational theorists is the choice of ends for the educational process. Without clear and rational educational goals, it becomes impossible to decide which educational programs achieve objectives of general import and which teach incidental facts and attitudes of dubious worth.

The Department holds that education should nourish the child's natural interaction with a developing society or environment.

> Education is the work of supplying the conditions which will enable the psychical functions, as they successively arise, to mature and pass into higher functions in the freest and fullest manner.*

This aim requires an educational environment that actively stimulates development through the presentation of resolvable but genuine problems. The organizing or developing force in the child's experience is the child's active thinking, and thinking is stimulated by cognitive conflict. Educative experiences makes the child think -- think in ways which organize both cognition and emotion.

..on Concepts:

Concepts are assumed to be the internal structures which organize thoughts and feelings into systems or wholes. These structures are patterns for the processing of information and the connecting of events. Concepts develop in a pupil's mind from interaction with the environment; cognitive development is a dialogue between the pupil's conceptual structures and the structures of the environment. The core of development is a change in general patterns of thinking about the self and the world.

The pupil's relation to the social environment is cognitive. It involves thought, concepts, and interactions about social data. Cognitive and affective development are parallel aspects of the general structural transformations which take place in the pupil's mind.

... on Values:

Social and moral values develop as a result of the pupil's interaction with the environment. They change along with the general cognitive structures of the mind as the pupil develops. The end point of this value-concept development is a system of ethical principles which outline moral reasoning, judgment, and action. The active stimulation of the child's mind to develop toward this conceptual system is an end of education. Because the development of these principles is a natural process, going through several stages along the way, we do not impose them upon the pupils -- they choose them themselves. In order to facilitate and stimulate this natural and universal growth process, we must provide experiences which produce in the pupil a questioning of his or her current social and moral concepts, and a rational examination of alternatives. In this way, the development of his valuing processes will be stimulated toward their natural end point.

... on the Role of Schooling:

The Department has claimed that development can occur either naturally or as the result of a planned educational program. As we discussed earlier, development depends on experience. It is true, however, that the way in which experience stimulates development is not the way experience is programed in many forms of instruction and educational intervention. It is also true that the kinds of experience leading to development must be viewed in terms of a stimulation which is general rather than highly specific in its content or meaning.

Because the experiences necessary for structural development are believed to be universal, it is possible for the child to develop the behavior naturally, without planned instruction. But the fact that only about one-half of the adult American population fully reaches the highest stages of cognitive or ethical reasoning demonstrates that natural or universal forms of development are not inevitable but depend on experience. The purpose of a school is to provide experiences which are designed to stimulate the natural progression, with the eventual goal of higher-level reasoning by all its pupils.

Adapted from L. Kohlberg and R. Mayer, "Development as the Aim of Education", 1972, by James G. Lengel, Social Studies Consultant, Vermont State Department of Education.

* from John Dewey, Experience and Education

CONCEPTS: WHAT ARE THEY? HOW DID THEY GET THERE?

A concept is cognitive abstraction. It is a name for a class of things or events. It is a category. "Revolution" is a concept; the American Revolution, the Russian Revolution are events, not concepts. "Man" is a concept; Tom Jones, George Washington, Theodore Roosevelt are names, not concepts. The concepts "revolution" or "man" have been invented to classify particular events or things such as the French Revolution and Thomas Jefferson. Without concepts there would be no way to process, store and retrieve data; and we would be overwhelmed by the data pressing in on us.

A concept like "father", for example, permits us to make a number of assumptions about a particular man, once we have learned he is a father. We know that he has children, is probably married, is beyond puberty, and likely receives gifts on Fathers Day.

Concepts may be held at varying levels of sophistication. At the simplest level they enable us to make gross judgments and comparisons. As our ability to use the concept grows, so also do the levels of meaning. The concepts "house" and "home" may at one level refer to the same object.

It is important to note that a concept is an intellectual invention used to describe a particular phenomenon. A scientific concept, such as "mass" has meaning only because scientists mean something when they use it. If scientists learn that the concept is no longer useful, i.e., new information indicates the term is not so valid as previously believed, scientists will either replace it with a more useful concept or change what they mean when they use it. Of course, laymen will likely continue to use it long after it has been declared useless by science.

The concept totalitarianism illustrates this point in political science. Totalitarianism was invented by political scientists in the 1950's to enable scholars to classify data that was known about real political systems. The concept followed the real conditions and was invented as a way of thinking about these systems. In the last few years, as additional information about these real systems has become available, the concept of totalitarianism has been under attack by scholars. This has lead some political scientists to discontinue using the term, while others have sought to bring the concept into line with new knowledge. It is important to note that it was in part the invention of the concept of totalitarianism that lead to investigations that produced data leading to an attack on the concept, thereby requiring a new meaning for the term.

Some concepts that we use regularly are so vague that they either have to be qualified or we have to make assumptions about the knowledge and attitudes of the listener in order for them to have any real meaning. For example, all that is known for certain about someone who is described as a "loyal American" is that s/he is a citizen of the United States. We know nothing about his/her values, attitudes, beliefs and political behavior unless we know a great deal about the person who is describing. Such terms as "liberal" and "conservative" are often used to classify people, ideas and programs. These terms are so slippery, so open to multiple meanings, that they are practically useless to social scientists seeking to explain political phenomena, unless

each time they are used they are given specific, contextual definitions. One of the reasons terms such as "liberal" and "conservative" are so slippery is that they represent a tangle of both normative and empirical assertions. One of the tasks of social scientists is to invent concepts that enable them to classify an organized data more precisely and thereby enable them to derive more meaning from social behavior.

A fundamental purpose of formal education is to enable students to acquire batteries of concepts that enable them to derive more meaning from their experience and the experience of others. Robert Hanvey argues that the essential difference between the "educated" and the "uneducated" person is that the former sees more meaning. The difference between a specialist and a layman in any field is that the specialist sees more meaning, because s/he has access to concepts that are denied to the layman.

Social scientists have invented and borrowed concepts that are often unfamiliar to laymen and that enable scholars to see more meaning in social phenomena than do laymen. The principal task of teachers in social studies courses is to have students learn as many of these concepts as possible in order that they may begin to derive greater meaning from society.

Unfortunately, the growing interest in teaching concepts has lead some teachers to claim that they no longer teach facts; they teach concepts, without knowing the difference between the two. We must understand that concepts are simply intellectual inventions that are useful and valid only so long as they can be used successfully. Concepts found useful today may be deemed useless tomorrow. Concepts should be learned for what they are - intellectual tools that enable us to classify and organize data and to direct our investigation. Many of the concepts that social scientists use today were not used ten years ago. Doubtless many in use today will not be retained within the next decade. This is not to imply that teachers do not use concepts each day in their classrooms. The essential problem is that many teachers are unaware that they are teaching concepts and therefore do the task poorly; moreover many of the concepts they teach are of relatively low order, are relatively useless when compared to others and often are already possessed by students prior to enrolling in the course, thereby making such instruction redundant.

As stated above, concepts can be used to process, store and retrieve data. They are an important criteria for content selection, and as the building stones in the development of generalizations, laws, theory and bodies of theory. Students armed with concepts, not only possessing them but also able to use them, i.e., ask pertinent questions relative to these ideas, will have a far better chance of developing into independent, useful citizens who can observe and analyze their society.

CONCEPTS: WHAT ARE THEY? HOW DID THEY GET THERE?

Concepts (are internal organizations of thought which) are constructed by the learner from his active experience.

The view that the world of reality presents itself to us already neatly classified is erroneous, particularly in regard to historical concepts. The world of reality does not so present itself; it is we who do the classifying. (Beyer & Penna, p. 11)

...it is therefore impossible to maintain that the concepts of intelligent thought are simply derived from the perceptions through abstraction and generalization...concepts incorporate specific constructions of a more or less complex nature...that are abstracted not from the objects perceived but from the actions performed on those objects...(J. Piaget, The Psychology of the Child, p.49)

A concept is an individual's own way of making meaning of things he has experienced...a synthesis of a number of things an individual has experienced and conclusions he has drawn about his experiences. (Syracuse University Social Studies Curric. Ctr., as reported in Beyer & Penna p. 14)

Concept formation is, therefore, quite distinct from mere fact learning; it is also distinct from the committing of a definition to memory...no one can "give" a concept to a learner; he must develop it for himself. (ibid p. 15)

There is no single structure to the social studies. Each person brings his own structure - his own "body of imposed conceptions" - to any investigation. (Fenton in Beyer & Penna p. 25)

Concepts do not reveal the nature of reality, not even our most descriptive concepts. Instead they represent our classification of stimulus inputs. (Metcalf, in Beyer & Penna, p. 34)

Teaching of:

...concepts cannot be taught. Concepts cannot be given by one person to another at any level higher than that of simple recognition. Teachers can identify a concept for students and expect them to know it on the cognitive level of recall. But teachers cannot expect students to internalize it, to understand all its various interelated facets and ramifications, by simply labeling it. (Beyer & Penna, p. 43)

Concepts are inventions, not discoveries. They do not exist "out there" just waiting to be found out by someone...Concepts must evolve in the minds of the students themselves. (Beyer & Penna, p. 43)

Beyer & Penna, Concepts in the Social Studies, 1971.

CURRICULUM STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

This Guide defines the concepts of social science which have proven useful to people as they try to understand and explain their world. These concepts must be central in the social studies curriculum, but to simply define them does not help in actual curriculum planning or development. This article will outline a general social studies curriculum structure which relates concepts, skills, and content into an understandable system for program planning.

A few definitions and assumptions will help put together this structure:

Concepts: core ideas from the social sciences which the mind uses to explain the world. Concepts are developed gradually over time; most concepts are understood in some form by pupils at all ages; the social studies program should develop the concepts through each year's curriculum activities.

Skills: observable actions which pupils can perform with objects or data. In social studies, skills include map skills, critical thinking and reasoning skills, and social participation skills. Skills are developed gradually by the pupil, and may be taught in some form at all levels of instruction.

Content: the subjects or areas being studied and the activities engaged in by the pupils. In social studies content includes the various places in which man lives, his activities, and his social organizations. There is almost no limit to the content of social studies; some content areas are more fitting for some grades than others; it is only through content that concepts and skills can be learned.

The purpose of the social studies program is to ensure that the pupil developes the concepts and skills necessary for him/her to function as a full human being. In order for this purpose to be accomplished, the content to be studied must be consciously and deliberately designed to expose pupils

to the concepts defined in this Concept Guide, and to have them practice the essential social studies skills. It must also be appropriate to the pupils' ages and interests.

The core of the curriculum should be the concepts and skills of social studies. The content through which these are to be taught must be planned and arranged in such a way as to present the concepts and develop the skills in every grade level.

The following charts (pp.19-20) may be used to outline the structure of a social studies program. Your school or school district should use this Concept Guide and other resources to fill in the chart to best fit your community's interests. Please note that the chart is only a representation of the curriculum. It is too small to fit all of the activities of a school's social studies program, but a large version on a blackboard or a wall might conceivably be able to include a complete outline.

In order to complete this chart, three kinds of decisions must be made at the local level, in this order:

(1) Which concepts from the social sciences will be the core of our curriculum?

(2) Which social studies skills do we consider essential?

(3) What subjects will we study or what activities will we engage in at various grades to develop the concepts and skills?

Answers to these questions will allow you to fill in the far left column on the chart, and the bottom row. The next step is to show how each concept and skill will be developed in each content area. This step will fill in with examples each rectangle in the body of the chart. A few concepts or skills may not be able to be taught with certain content areas, but not many.

If the school's program were to follow the chart which you plan, students will be more likely to develop the concepts and skills they need. Each teacher at each grade level will be aiming each lesson toward the stated core concepts and essential skills. Knowledge of content will naturally be mastered through this process, but you may wish to add to the program objectives certain specific content items which you feel are important for the pupils to know. But keep in mind that the central purpose of the social studies curriculum is the development of concepts and skills by each pupil.

	GRADE	LEVELS		OR	COURSES	
Core Concepts:						
Skills:						
Content and Activities:						

	GRADE 1	GRADE 2	GRADE 3	GRADE 4	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
Core Concepts:						
Change	Family change with new member.	Differences between school, home.	How our town has changed over the years.	Industrialization affects people's lives.	Revolution of 1776 as political change.	Vermont: 1777 vs. Today
Basic Needs	Needs of each family member.	Need for education.	What needs does our town supply?	Different regions = different needs.	Basic needs vs. modern luxuries.	The farm as self-sustaining unit.
Social Groups	Family as basic group.	Classes, Grades, Friendships.	Groups within town. Identify.	Identify groups in all regions.	Ethnic heritage of U.S.	Tories, squatters, speculators in 1777.
Interdependence	Each member depends on others	Cooperation in learning.	Connections of our town to world.	Varying degrees of interdependence.	Economic complexity.	Vermont's dependence on rest of world.
Conflict	Problems in family rules.	Breaking school rules as conflict.	Issues in community today.	Man vs. nature in all regions.	Civil war as complex conflict.	Vermont; rural paradise or modern culture.
Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.
Skills						
Map-making	Map of home.	Map route from home to school. Map school.	Town map. Old vs. today's village.	Sample maps of each region.	Recognize states by shape.	Vermont mapped by different variables.
Valuing	Values of different family members.	What's important in school?	Community values.	What values in what regions?	Vietnam War: right or wrong?	Ethan Allen's values.
Problem-solving	Simulate family problems to solve.	School problems: alternative solutions.	Study town's problems and how they're being solved.	Special problems in each region.	Suggesting solutions to environmental problems.	State Government as problem-solver.
Research	Collect answers to questions at home.	Find out about other classes, pupils, teachers.	- Town History - Interviews - Old newspapers	Reports using resources in library.	Reports on states, cities, presidents, etc.	Use of various sources on same topic.
Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.
Content and Activities	Home and Family: I. Family Members II. Family work roles III. Family activities Etc.	The School Community: I. School Personnel II. School Functions III. Subject Areas IV. Student's Responsibility Etc.	Community Life: I. Our Town II. Community Helpers III. Dairy Farming IV. Maple Sugaring Etc.	Regions of the World: I. Forest II. Desert III. Ocean IV. Industrial V. Agricultural Etc.	The United States: I. History II. People III. Regions IV. Modern Problems Etc.	Vermont: I. Modern Issues II. Economy III. History IV. Culture Etc.

(SAMPLE)

THE CURRICULUM WEB:

A Method of Relating Topics and Content to Concepts and Skills
(Adapted from the work of Dr. Thomas Goodkind, Univ. of Conn.)

The curriculum web is one method which may be used by teachers, curriculum committees, and even by students to plan their study of social studies topics. Through this process, you decide how each of the concepts and skills of social studies may be explored with a given content area or topic.

(see attached diagram)

The procedure for working with this web should be this:

(1) Choose a general topic which is suitable for study by your students. (A topic may be almost anything: "Japan", "McDonalds", "Maple Sugaring", "Vermont Constitution", "Vietnam War", "Community Helpers", "United Nations", etc. The topic should, of course, fit in with the needs and interests of your students and the sequence of your curriculum.)

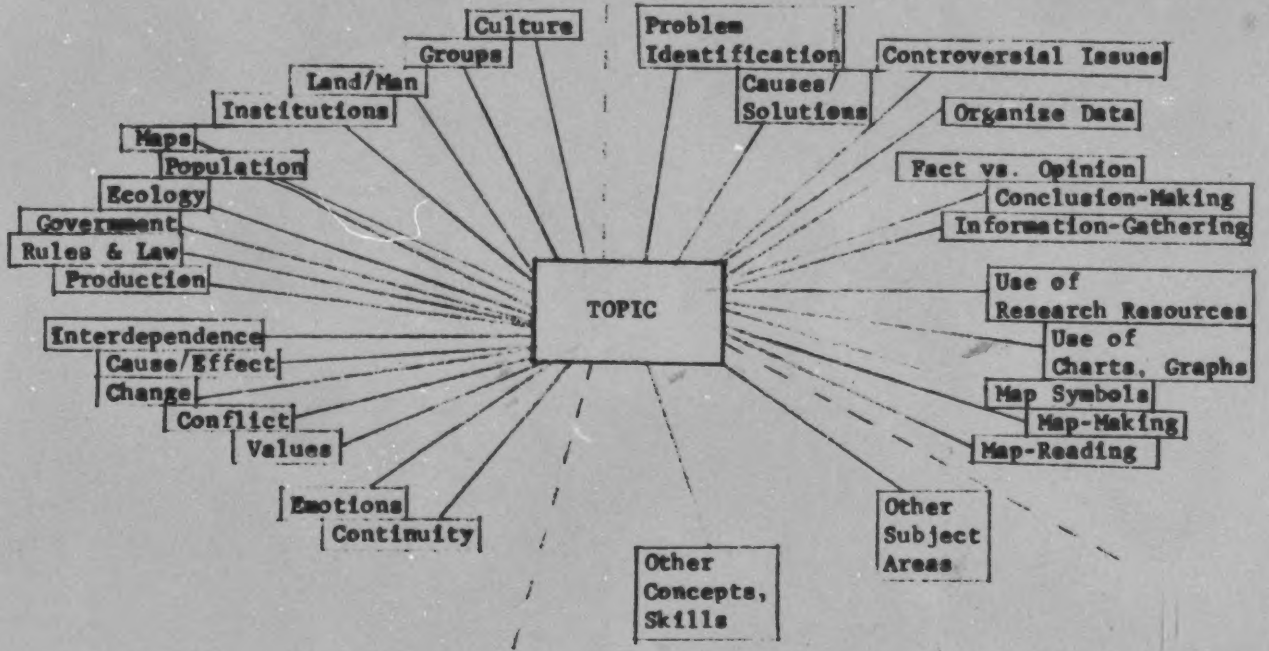
(2) Sit down with the basic web shown above. For each box around the outside, think of class activities or examples to present which related your topic to the concept or skill listed. You may wish to have your students help in this brainstorming process. Write the ideas in the space around the outside.

(3) Using textbooks, research materials, field trips, games, models, etc., plan activities for the class or for individual students to carry out the ideas you have written into the web.

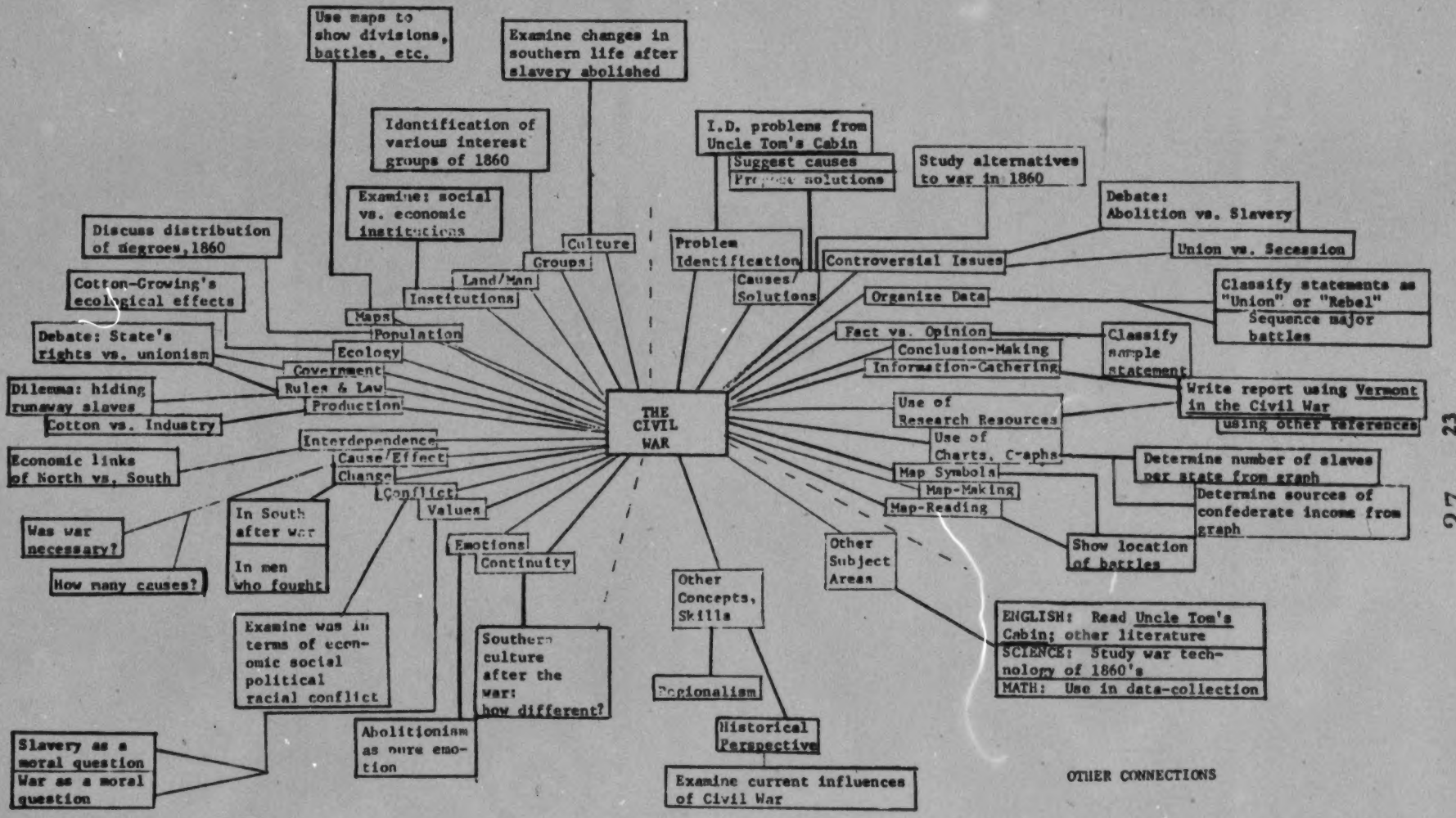
A sample filled-in web is attached, along with the basic web.

CONCEPTS

SKILLS



OTHER CONNECTIONS



AN EXAMPLE OF A FILLED OUT CURRICULUM WEB

Knowledge and Process in the Social Studies

by Michael Hartoonian

Common Rationale

The development of curriculum and instruction is ordinarily built upon three basic considerations: (1) The nature and demands of society; (2) The nature of knowledge; and (3) The nature of learners and the learning process.

The dynamic forces of change in all aspects of living and working have created a new imperative for the schools in their task of educating students for citizenship. This imperative, simply stated, is that students must become more knowledgeable about the conditions, problems, and realities surrounding them, and must, at the same time, become more skillful in the application of knowledge. Satisfying this demand is complicated because change occurs so rapidly that new knowledge confronts humans even before they can understand the past. Besides the linear explosion of knowledge, combinations of new and old knowledge give the knowledge explosion a multi-dimensional characteristic which compounds the problem further. With each passing year we can assume that a smaller proportion of total knowledge will be learned. Social studies knowledge must be viewed not only as a product but also as a tool to be applied toward the solution of personal and social problems in a world of constantly accelerating rates of change. Students will need more than ever before to develop and use rational processes to discover meaning for themselves to cope with present and future problems and conditions of life which cannot be foreseen today.

In the limited time allocated for social studies in school, it is crucial that students acquire the most reliable, significant and transferable units of knowledge and thought - concepts and generalizations, and theories - since these units transform, compress and organize experience and provide a necessary part of the framework for thinking. Students must then master the most significant concepts, generalizations, and theories of social studies as well as develop skills to learn more, to test what they learn, and to apply what they learn to social and personal problems.

While present educational practice tends to be dominated by the notion that intelligence is a single kind of ability which can be expressed as an I.Q. score, a re-examination of this assumption has led some investigators to describe intelligence in terms of multiple abilities, each of which is amenable to improvement through instruction. Developmental theory suggests that the growing child passes successively through three periods in cognitive development. Differences among the various periods and stages of growth are thought to be qualitative, rather than mere differences in degree of cognitive development. This suggests that Bruner's hypothesis (The Process of Education) that any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development assumes not only the use of concepts that the child can understand, but that the learning experience be appropriate to his stage of development.

Of the three considerations for curriculum development listed above, two of them, the demands of society and the nature of knowledge, can be best understood by knowing of the nature of the learner. We know from

studies of cognitive and social development done in the last 30 years that: (1) the end point of the natural process of social development is a stage of social reasoning which is based on principles of justice, fairness, and respect long recognized as desirable for society, and (2) the end point of natural intellectual development is a stage of reasoning based on the scientific method and able to relate concepts to each other. Therefore, our primary purpose should be the stimulation of these processes of development in the intellectual and social domains. Optimum growth by pupils in their self-development will produce the social being desired by society and the intellectual being able to comprehend and utilize the knowledge of science. Our attention should be focused on the third consideration as we provide learning experiences based on the other two. Our eyes should be on the developing pupils as they study society and take in knowledge.

The Nature of Knowledge

Knowledge has two logical components: (1) The concepts, generalizations, and theories of discipline (i.e., a conceptual framework); and (2) The methods and procedures utilized by scholars in developing or adding to these fundamentals. To achieve the fullest understanding of this conceptual-cognitive curriculum, understanding teachers need to analyze cognitive process, products, and teaching strategies. Although the unique nature of each social science is recognized, the reflective method described here is appropriate for all social inquiring and explanation.

Teaching Intellectual Abilities and Skills

Teaching social knowledge is assumed to be an important function of social studies education. Although social studies teachers are concerned with psychomotor skills and with values and attitudes, many of their educational objectives and much of their instructional time and effort are directed to the cognitive aspects of education. Social studies educators generally agree that their students should have fundamental knowledge of topics like United States history, American government and politics, Western heritage, non-Western cultures, and capitalism, communism and socialism. They also agree that their students should become proficient in cognitive or thinking processes which include what is sometimes called "critical thinking," "analysis," "inquiry," or "problem solving."

This concern with intellectual abilities and skills suggests that careful scrutiny should be given to cognitive learning and teaching practices in the social studies. The selection and use of instructional materials, the conduct of instructional activities, and the nature of the testing of students' knowledge is, how it is learned, and how it is used.

This study concentrates on the learning of more abstract, transferable, and useful kinds of content comprised of concepts, generalizations, and theories rather than the learning of relatively rote and specific facts and terminology. This relatively abstract kind of subject matter becomes meaningful as it is related to what the student already knows. This article describes a range of strategies for teaching the various kinds of abstract knowledge and outlines approaches to evaluating students' mastery of them. It is intended to help teachers to plan more effectively for the teaching of conceptual content and to help the social studies coordinator or local social studies curriculum committee deal with the important issue of designing a social studies program that introduces and develops knowledge at an ever-increasing level of sophistication. The basic notion here is that there is a relationship between how knowledge is classified (concepts, generalizations, etc.) and the teaching strategies used in the classroom. For example, the concept of change may be introduced in kindergarten and further developed as the maturity of the students develop. However, teaching change as a concept *per se* can only have limited utility - that of concept development. To increase the sophistication of this notion of change, change must also be dealt with at higher levels of abstraction.

The principal kinds of knowledge are labeled concepts, generalizations, and models. Each kind of knowledge includes in its meaning those at the lower levels, and each lower level supports the meaning of the more abstract higher levels. Each kind of knowledge has characteristics which distinguish it from the others and influence its relative position in the structure.

Models, generalizations, and concepts are essentially a person's subjective, internalized understanding, but each can be represented in a communication and demonstrated in observable outward behaviors. In the following paragraphs the nature of concepts, generalizations, and models and their related contexts, communications, and behaviors is discussed. Then the association of the different kinds of knowledge is explained. Finally, strategies for teaching the abstract knowledge types are outlined.

Concepts

A concept is a mental construct which embraces a whole category of things, events, or ideas. It is a body of meanings or attributes which the person associates with a category or class, with members of the class, and with the symbol for the class. Some explanation of attributes, classes, symbols, and class members is useful to describe concepts.

Attributes

Attributes are distinguishable characteristics or properties of things, events, or ideas. They are features that can be noted as the same, similar, or different. A mountain, for example, has the features of being big and natural. A city is characterized as being man-made. A stone has the properties of being small and natural, a ring those of being small and man-made.

Some attributes are based on fact in that they are concrete information that can be verified from reports of others or through direct observation. Other atrributes are based on values or form established by social convention. Having recurring themes is a feature of form that distinguishes classical music. Being man-made is an example of a characteristic of music that is based on fact.

Attributes are "known" at different levels of awareness. Some can be readily stated while others may be used but not easily verbalized. If asked the differences between cats and dogs, for example, people readily mention attributes like the cat's whiskers and the dog's bark, but only after considerable effort do they state characteristics like the shape of the forehead or the typical gait when running; yet if they were given such features alone, they could tell which were those of the dog and which those of the cat.

Classes

Classes are groupings of things, events, or ideas, each grouping including things with the same or similar attributes. Knowledge of such classes or categories is common and useful. People are categorized by attributes of gender, occupation, kinship, age, and interests. Living things are sorted as plants or animals, mammal or reptile, bird or fish, domestic or wild. Although an oversimplification, politicians can be classified as liberal or conservative, Democrats or Republicans. We classify practically everything according to sets of attributes and that which we cannot readily classify tends to be confusing or mysterious.

Categories are based on one or several key attributes but the members of the class may have many other distinguishable features, some of which are similar, others of which are different. For example, a religious ceremony,

a law, a building, and a football game can all be grouped in the same class since they share the attributes of being man-made and of being based on learned behavior, but they have many other features. Wind, a river, a mountain, and migration of swallows differ in many attributes, but can be put in the single class of things that are natural and not learned. Things in the latter group would be excluded from the first because they do not share the distinguishing attributes of that class, even though some members of the two classes may share other features in the way that the migration and game are both complexes of behavior.

Each class is typically a part of a system of class in which larger classes are divisible into smaller subclasses. The two classes considered in the above paragraph, for example, might be subdivisions of the class of things found in man's environment. The class of man-made, learned things could in turn be subdivided into material things (like the building) and non-material things (like the game, law, and ceremony).

Symbols and Terms

Each class can have a symbol which names or refers to the class and its members. The symbol is most often a word or group of words but it could also be a gesture, number, picture, character, or mark. Whatever it is, the symbol serves as a convenient way to communicate about the class. The bird migration river, wind, and mountain group discussed above could be labeled "natural environment" and the group of man-made, socially learned things called "culture." Both groups together could be named "the human environment." Within the culture category, the material things like the building could be named "artifacts" and the non-material things like the ceremony "non-material culture."

Class Members

Examples are members of a particular class, things that have the distinguishing attributes of the category. Non-examples are things which either do not have the key attributes or have other attributes which exclude them from a given class. For example, highways and language are examples of cultural things, valleys and climate are non-examples. Highways are examples of artifacts and non-examples of non-material culture.

A concept, then, is the abstract body of meaning a person associates with a class, with members of the class, and with the symbol for the class. It consists of the person's awareness of the attributes of the class. A concept is a way of giving unity to diverse class members. The concept of culture, for example, is one's awareness to attributes shared by cultural things in general rather than the remembering of specific attributes of particular members of the class like language, a religious ceremony, or a city.

The concept is internalized and subjective, with each person building his own concept from his own experience. From experiences like hearing discussion of a category of things or noting examples of the class each person becomes aware of attributes. A student who reads that a sociologist studied culture when he observed urban ghetto housing, morals, and family structure will develop a concept of culture quite different from that of the student who hears a conversation linking culture with opera, Shakespeare, tuxedos, and champagne. From the same experience two students may well associate different attributes.

For example, if a class considers life-ways of New Guinea headhunters in a study of culture, one student may link the attributes "bizarre" and "undesirable" with culture to the exclusion of other features while another student may learn attributes like "learned" and "diverse."

Concepts and Communications

The concept is an abstract awareness of attributes rather than a verbalization, but its meaning can be represented in communications that state or imply the attributes. A concept can be represented in a definition or explanation which lists or gives key attributes. The concept of culture, for example, can be defined as "what human groups have learned to do and make through generations" or can be explained at greater length. Such communications cannot, of course, represent all the attributes of the concept, and their value depends greatly on the attributes the reader has learned to associate with the symbols used.

Overt Behaviors

If a concept is a subjective, internalized, abstract awareness of attributes not all of which may be verbalizable, one cannot directly observe or measure students' knowledge of the concept. However, knowing the concept can be demonstrated through observable behaviors which the concept enables the student to perform. If s/he can define or explain culture in his own words, for example, there is some evidence that the student knows the concept. Better demonstration of knowledge may come from behaviors like the following:

Kinds of Outward Behavior that Show Knowledge of a Concept	Examples
Given a new group of examples and non-examples, students will be able to identify examples and non-examples of the concept. (Classification.)	Given a drawing or description of a community scene, students will be able to identify cultural and natural features.
Given a new problem in which knowledge of the content is useful but no specified, students will use the concept to solve the problem. (Application.)	Given pictures or descriptions of different shelters in the same natural environment and asked why different groups build different shelters, students will include the concept of culture in their explanations.
Given motivation, students will be able to find or give examples of the concept not studied in class. (Synthesis.)	If told to imagine a visit to a strange land, students will be able to describe material and non-material cultural features they might find there.

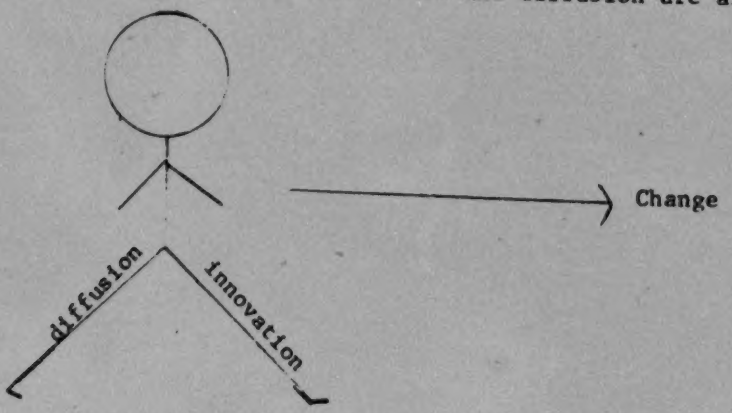
Generalizations

A generalization is a mental construct which can be developed to show the relationship between or among concepts. It is a linkage or chaining among concepts. It involves whole classes or concepts rather than individual members or

examples and constitutes an assertion that a relationship exists between or among the concepts. Statements commonly called principles, hypotheses, and scientific laws are often generalizations as they are defined here.

That cultures are always changing through innovation and diffusion is an example of a generalization. It links the concepts of culture, change, diffusion, and innovation. It asserts that there is a relationship between culture and change by diffusion and innovation.

"If one finds change in a culture, then innovation and diffusion are also present."



A generalization might be considered a kind of complex statement of relationship including the attributes of the component concepts and of the relationship between them, but it differs in some ways from concepts as discussed above. It is a higher level abstraction with its own meaning which is not the same as and is greater than the meaning of the concepts included. Understanding a generalization is an understanding of the relationship among concepts which is more than combined knowledge of the conepts involved. Since a generalization is based on inference or reasoning in addition to the classification or association upon which the concept is based, it differs markedly from the concept in that it can be judged different or similar but not true or correct. If people can agree on the meaning of concepts in a generalization, however, they can test the generalization by examining appropriate evidence and using reasoning.

Models

More complex mental constructs can also be developed to correlate a number of interrelated generalizations and concepts which together constitute a unity with an identity and meaning of their own. The component generalizations and concepts fit together in a pattern so that they complement and add meaning to each other. The model is the most abstract knowledge in a particular structure as defined here, being most inclusive, furthest removed from the specific facts or conventions on which the structure is based, and most useful.

Models as defined here include several kinds of commonly encountered abstractions. Theories like Darwin's evolution of species and Turner's frontier thesis fit the definition. Systems like the political system, creeds like Christianity, myths like the Protestant ethic, and operational theories like that for teaching knowledge considered in this paper may be considered models. Each of these is a system comprised of interrelated concepts and generalizations.

Such models are not often known and used consciously and thoroughly as a physician uses a model of human physiology to diagnose illness or as space scientists use a system of principles of physics to put a satellite in orbit. They may be used in part as when people may use some ideas from a religious creed to explain some things but ignore or not know the rest of the creed. They may often be used as a set of operational assumptions implicit in patterns of behavior but never consciously defined or verbalized. For example, every socialized adult has an operational model of social structure. In each group, institution, and gathering in which s/he finds himself, s/he seeks out the appropriate status and role and follows the appropriate norms and social processes. S/he is aware of a set of such ideas in that s/he consistently uses them but s/he probably would not or could not verbalize them without a great deal of introspection and analysis of what s/he does. S/he certainly would not name the concepts and generalizations of social structure as a sociologist would but probably uses them in his/her daily routine as well as a sociologist does.

A model could be regarded as a highly complex concept with the several generalizations and concepts in the model providing a maze of attitudes, but it doesn't possess the characteristics of concepts as developed above. It is more complex and abstract than bodies of attributes associated with whole categories. It is not derived from the association of attributes of fact or convention but rather from the inferences and suggestions of a group of concepts and generalizations. Like the generalization and unlike the concept, the model can be tested for truth and validity by determining, for example, whether predictions made according to the model are realized, whether it works in observable situations, or whether it agrees with accepted doctrine.

SECTION III: CONCEPTS FROM THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

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The selection of these concepts takes into account the latest in social science research and social studies curriculum development; it is however, only an advisory list and open to addition or deletion. Also, the categorization of these concepts by social sciences discipline is not necessarily the way they should be presented to students or organized in your curriculum:

> It is perfectly clear that social problems do not present themselves in the convenient categories of the academic disciplines, and that many of the most important questions about man and society also transcend the disciplinary boundaries. (Martin Trow, in Proceedings of the 1974 ETS Conference on Moral Development.)

KEY CONCEPTS FROM THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

ANTHROPOLOGY-SOCIOLOGY
Culture
Belief Systems
Groups
Socialization
Institution
Man

ECONOMICS
System
Scarcity
Production
Supply and Demand
Growth
Interdependence

GEOGRAPHY
Land/Man Relationships
Maps
Population
Natural Resources
Ecology
Adaptation

HISTORY
Cause and Effect
Change
Continuity
Conflict
Historical Perspective
Evidence

POLITICAL SCIENCE
Government
Power
Rules and Law
Decision-Making
Ideology
Citizenship

PSYCHOLOGY
Behavior
Beliefs and Values
Religion
Morality
Identity
Emotions

The pages which follow define some of the concepts from the social sciences, and suggest how they may be presented at various levels of pupil development. Questions are listed which may help students focus on these central ideas. The key concepts in each discipline are in upper-case type and nearer to the edge of the page. Related sub-concepts are listed and defined under the key concepts.

CONCEPTS FROM

ANTHROPOLOGY-SOCIOLOGY

CULTURE is everything which can be deliberately handed down from one generation to another. This includes artifacts, beliefs, language, values, etc. Culture can be physically handed down or learned; it is not biologically inherited.

Human Ecology

This term refers to relationships among a people who live in a defined area, possess artifacts, resources, and technical knowledge as well as customs and beliefs which determine how they utilize the natural resources, and structure interpersonal relationships. All of the parts of a culture are related to each other and form an interacting pattern.

Material Culture

The material culture consists of the artifacts or objects of a culture.

Non-Material Culture

The non-material culture is the ideas, beliefs, religious ideas, political ideas, values and attitudes of a culture.

Sacred to Secular Continuum

Types of societies may be placed along a continuum which runs from traditional to modern. In "traditional" societies, ideas and tools are passed from one generation to another - myths and customs. In such a society the irrational and especially religious beliefs have great importance. In such a sacred society, change occurs very little. Tradition binds the people to already established patterns of behavior. The old way is the best way because it is the usual way. Sacred societies tend to be homogeneous (its members are alike) to have small populations, and to be pre-literate. They tend to be rejecting of outsiders, according to this model.

In modern or secular (non-religion oriented) society, decisions tend to be based on reason, rather than on tradition, including religion. Secular societies tend to be pluralistic, that is, to have many competing groups. They are usually larger, as well as more complex, and have a more advanced technology, according to this model.

Traditional cultures are characterized by their resistance to change. Customs are passed from generation to generation. Anthropologists used various words to describe early traditional societies, one of which is "pre-literate." The word "primitive" is no longer used to describe these cultures since it does not reflect their ecological complexity. The earliest traditional societies depended upon hunting, gathering, and nomadism. Tools are few and used for many purposes. Early traditional groups were usually small.

Peasant Cultures

Most of the people of the world are members of peasant cultures. They are characterized by (a) subsistence farming, (b) reluctance to change, and (c) a way of life that is dictated to a large extent by tradition and the customs that have been passed on from the past. Although still traditional societies, they are more modern than the earliest traditional cultures.

Urban cultures are the most familiar to people in the Western world. In such cultures the dominant economic activities are carried on inside cities. Urban cultures tend to be largely secular. They are not purely so because irrational beliefs are still passed on from generation to generation or invented anew. These appear in language, religion, politics, and other aspects of both the material and non-material culture. Urban cultures, through more advanced technology, tend to try to control the environment, rather than to be controlled by it.

Monistic Culture

A monistic culture is characterized by the similarity of its members. Few language sub-groups, racial sub-types, or ethnic sub-groups are contained within the culture as a whole. Monistic cultures tend toward the sacred end of the cultural continuum and to have neither the diffusion of ideas from other cultures or the internal diversity which might bring about change.

Pluralistic cultures are those that are made up of diverse groups and sub-cultures. The United States is a typical pluralistic culture because of its different dialect areas, ethnic groups, religions, political values, etc. A pluralistic society is one in which many groups compete within the framework of traditionally defined values. These values may be interpreted in various ways by different groups within the culture. This conflict helps to bring about new practices, beliefs, and values.

Cultural Growth:

Diffusion

When cultures come in contact with each other, new ideas, tools, and ways of acting are exchanged or learned. This process is called diffusion. Change in both (all) occurs.

Assimilation is the acceptance and integration of ideas, tools, techniques, etc. from another culture. The receiving culture generally adapts the new idea or tool or way of acting in such a way that it fits as smoothly as possible into already customary ways of behaving.

Invention is another way that cultures grow and change. Unique individuals or groups within a particular culture may figure out a new way of doing some old task, or new tools, or reinterpret an old idea. Inventions may cause change in the culture in many directions. For example, the invention or discovery of agriculture changed people from nomadic hunters and gatherers to settlers and farmers and

opened the way to new political and economic institutions. The invention of the automobile has influenced the authority of the family, conventional morals, geographic mobility for large numbers of people, etc.

Isolation

Sometimes cultures change so slowly that it appears as if no change were occurring. There may be few inventions or little contact with other cultures. Usually these cultures are those which have remained in isolation. Isolation tends to keep cultures traditional.

Migration

Group movement from one place to another tends to diffuse ideas and artifacts from one people to another.

Cultural Lag is what happens when part of a culture changes greatly at the same time that other parts do not. For example, in the United States, technological advances have brought changes which values and norms have not changed to meet. Many Americans still believe that work is a moral necessity in spite of the fact that many people will soon be unable to work even if they wish to. There is a lag between our technological competence and our values.

Acculturation occurs when groups adjust to or learn to cope with particular social or physical environments. The environment limits people's range of choices but does not determine which ones they choose. Their past experience and level of technology help to determine what types of adaptation are open to them and whether they will be able to control their environment as much as they are controlled by it.

BELIEF SYSTEMS. All cultures, wherever they are found, have integrated systems of beliefs which include the highest values and ideas, symbols, and day-to-day expectations, norms, and goals.

Mores are the highest values of a particular culture. They are learned and internalized on an unconscious level as part of the socialization process. Both sacred and secular cultures sanctify their mores by myths and customs. People who offend mores are usually punished severely. In the United States, for example, one of our mores is the belief that a man should marry one woman at a time. In other cultures, however, the mores may require that a man marry more than one woman at a time. Mores change slowly; they give continuity to a culture over time.

Folkways are beliefs associated with day-to-day activities such as manners, etiquette, dress, etc. Folkways change much more rapidly than mores do because these beliefs are less fundamental and less deeply held. The conflict between adults and the young today in terms of hair styles, clothing, sexual attitudes, etc. is an example of changing folkways. Beliefs held by one generation are being used as a standard for judgment of the folkways of the next generation. When someone offends the folkways, s/he

is not punished severely. Punishment may be in the form of ridicule. In a pluralistic culture, divergent folkways are tolerated more easily than in a monistic one.

Myths are of many varieties. They are built out of beliefs about the origins of the world and proper ways of behaving. Historical myths may commemorate symbolic heroes of the past. Every culture - not just traditional ones - has its myths.

Values are of two major kinds: Those which are expressed and those which are enacted. Within one culture, it may be expected for certain values to be expressed - that is, talked about - at the same time that acting out that value is frowned upon. The American value of equality serves us as an example. It is an expressed value but has not been an enacted one in the past.

Norms are the expectations which members of a group have toward those in various roles in that group. A mother in Germany, for example, expects herself, and is expected, to be certain things and to behave in certain ways.

Goals are objectives or the things which individuals and groups wish to accomplish. They may reflect individual differences. They are shaped by social values and norms.

Symbols

A symbol is a concrete representation of an idea, emotion, or faith understood by most members of a society or group. Symbolizing is unique to humans and all cultures use symbols to convey meaning.

Attitudes are less enduring than beliefs or values. They are the products of individual perceptions but are shaped by the beliefs, values, and attitudes of the society of which the individual is a member.

Customs are the whole body of usages, practices, conventions, etc. that form the pattern of social interaction in a group. They are transmitted usually from one member to another, from one generation to another generation. Customs may be long-established practices and considered to be part of the unwritten law.

Rules are developed as means of social controls to enable groups to live together peacefully and productively. These codes of conduct can either be spoken or unspoken, written or unwritten, formal and informal. Rules are backed by sanctions: if they are obeyed, the individual is rewarded; if they are disobeyed, the individual is punished.

GROUPS:

Class

Today many sociologists agree that class is a matter of group values. In the past, other indices have been wealth, occupation and education.

Sacred societies, if they are economically homogeneous, may be almost classless. Secular societies which are more technological and more urbanized have clearer class differences

Caste

A caste is an hereditary class. Members are born into it and few succeed in moving out during their lifetime. As with class, caste restricts choice of mate, occupation, social participation, and residence, but usually much more severely. Hindu society is an example of a caste system. When the members of a social class remain the same generation after generation, the class may be said to have become a caste.

Stratification

All societies rank their members according to their level of stratum or prestige. Ranking or stratification may be based on various criteria. In the United Stateds, for example, people are ranked on the basis of wealth, education, occupation, and family. In other places of the world the number of wives or cows owned determines importance in the social hierarchy. Stratification is always based on the values of a society.

Status is the name given to the various positions held in a social hierarchy of stratification system. The lower the rank the less control over the decision-making process of the culture. The higher the status, the more control it is possible to have over these processes.

Ascribed and Achieved Status

When a status position is given to an individual on the basis of traits he has inherited, status is ascribed. A hereditary king, for example, has ascribed status because he was born into the royal family. A person born as a member of a caste in Hindu society is automatically ascribed a status position. A black man in the United States may be ascribed certain status positions because of his skin color. Usually more ascribed positions are in sacred societies than in secular ones. Achieved status is one which the individual has earned on hi, own merits. Secular, modern societies with complex needs for skills and knowledge tend to emphasize achieved status.

Kinship Relations:

The Nuclear Family

In this type of family husband, wife, and dependent offspring form an economic unit with responsibility for some of the education of the young. Persons who are biologically related to this family nucleus tend to play a secondary role in the larger family pattern.

Extended Family

The extended family is a larger group of biological related persons which includes the nuclear family and a varying number of more distant relatives. There is a strong socio-economic bond between the individuals in the extended family. Families of the extended type are those occurring most often. An extended family may consist of father, mother, children, grandfather and grandmother, with assorted uncles and aunts, and perhaps even cousins, living under the same roof and all contributing to each others' economic and social well-being.

Clan

A clan is a collection of extended families.

Ethnic groups are made up of people with traits and customs in common. Some of the traits by which ethnic groups are identified are racial characteristics, language or accent, religious beliefs, and social customs.

Art

In any culture art is a means of expressing individual experience and the sense of beauty derived from membership in the group. Art includes music, dance, drama, painting, sculpture, literature, etc.

SOCIALIZATION. The process by which a human being learns to become a member of a group is called socialization. Socialization is both formal and informal education - that is, what an individual is consciously taught and what s/he learns informally from others. Individuals acquire patterns of behavior, attitudes and opinions, and value systems from a variety of sources. Some of the basic ones include the family, religious institutions, peers, institutionalized schools, and media of communication.

Family

The most fundamental agency of the socialization process is the family. In many societies during the child's formative years from birth to about five years old, s/he is under the direct control and influence of family life. The infant is born into the world with certain biological needs. These are fulfilled by interaction with family members which influence the formation of attitudes, values, and behavior. Not only are general societal values passed on as interpreted by the family members, specific kinds of roles are learned.

Primary groups are those which provide intimate, face-to-face contacts. Usually the primary group is restricted to the family, close friends, and immediate associates in a neighborhood or community. Because of the closeness of these relationships, it is the primary group that has the greatest influence on the formation of the child's attitudes and behaviors. In a small sacred society, all of the associations of the child may be primary. In a modern, mobile society primary groups are smaller and may even disappear in industrial, urban life.

Secondary Groups

Membership in secondary groups is less personal or intimate and more casual. In Western societies a very important secondary group is the school. This may be one of the first agencies to which the individual is exposed apart from face-to-face primary groups. Primary groups offer security; secondary groups offer more opportunity for individual expression of personality just because they are both less personally involving or rewarding and contact is more superficial.

Kinship Relationships

Outside of the immediate family (mother, father, siblings) are found other relatives, uncles, aunts, grandfathers, grandmothers, cousins, etc., who support the basic value and belief systems passed on to young children.

Authorities

Behavior is rewarded or punished by authorities. A boss, a policeman, a school teacher, father, etc. each may have the function of enforcing certain basic rules and behavioral patterns. Authority is usually associated with symbols. Frequently, the symbol of authority is all that is needed to gain conformity to expectations.

Ethnic Groups

The ethnic group is a particular kind of group found within a pluralistic society which, like other groups, socializes individuals into its own values, as well as some of those of the larger society.

Cohesion

One of the results of socialization is that members of a group feel that they are part of it because they share values, norms, and patterns of behavior. Cohesion is the feeling of belonging.

Roles

Regular patterns of acting or behaving by individuals as they interact with each other in specially defined capacities are called roles. Roles are learned. They include knowledge of the expectations of others toward oneself.

Social Roles

As a person moves out from the family, s/he encounters secondary groups within which s/he defines, and has defined for him or her, specific social roles. These shape behavior and attitudes when interacting in groups. Economic social roles are defined and have status assigned to them; e.g., ditch-digger = low status; doctor = high role status. Social roles are developed for all human interactions; one individual may hold many different roles at the same time: As father, lawyer, Democrat, husband, etc. Social roles may change as one moves from one group to another.

Sex Roles: learned patterns of behavior and belief appropriate to persons of a given sex in a given society.

World View is a way of summing up an individual's or group's most basic values and beliefs about the nature of the universe and human beings. The world view of his culture serves as a filter when the individual views aspects of cultures which are foreign.

Irrationalism occurs when reason is not the prime arbiter of social action and problem-solving.

Bias occurs when only those facts are perceived which support already formed beliefs.

Prejudice occurs when judgment is made before the evidence is considered, or made on unjust or unreasonable grounds.

Stereotypes

These are built by generalizing about the members of a group. They have been commonly used to suggest that all individuals within that group are alike - a suggestion which is scientifically most unsound.

Discrimination

When prejudice is carried into practice, discrimination occurs.

Ethnocentrism

This is the belief that one's own culture is superior and the proper basis for the evaluation of other cultures. Groups cannot help their ethnocentrism, but they can be made aware that every other group feels the same way about its society.

Perception

This term refers to the individual's selection, organization and interpretation of the world. What the individual perceives and how it is organized and interpreted are taught by the culture.

Practices are behavior patterns as adapted and adopted by individuals. They are the result of both socialization processes and personal interpretation. People in the same culture tend to behave in ways which have underlying similarities but are shaped by individual differences.

Role Expectation

This is the expectation which is shared by members of a group that persons holding role will behave in certain patterned ways.

INSTITUTIONS:

Institution

An institution is a pattern of relationships with expectations attached to them. This pattern is usually one which lasts from generation to generation and survives change. The Catholic church is an institution;

the British monarchy is another. Institutions are developed in response to particular needs and vary from culture to culture. Because they are the means of organizing and routinizing the solutions to needs, institutions help to maintain the stability of a culture.

As the indiviuual becomes a participant in the economic and political institutions of society, the roles, norms learned there tend to support what has been learned through more intimate processes.

MAN. Man is a species capable of complex social organization, rational problem solving, learning, and culture-building. Humans are the most developed of all species.

ANTHROPOLOGY-SOCIOLOGY: Some Suggested Focus Questions

CULTURE

Types

What kinds of tools are used?

What are some of the basic values?

Does tradition play a strong role in determining what is believed and what is done?

Is hunting the basic economic activity?

Is farming the basic economic activity?

Does the culture region have many large cities and mechanized agriculture?

Are there subgroups with different linguistic and ethnic patterns of behavior?

Growth

How have ways of acting and believing changed from their historic pattern?

What factors have caused these changes?

What changes have been introduced from the outside?

What have been the effects? What changes have been most widely and quickly accepted?

What aspects of the culture demonstrate unique adaptations to the physical and social environment?

BELIEF SYSTEMS

What are the most important values held by the people (Political, economic, and social)?

What are some of the day-to-day habits and patterns of behaviors (food, etiquette, dress, etc.)?

How should certain persons behave toward others, e.g., child toward grandfather, woman toward man, etc.?

What stories are told of the past to explain the nature of the universe?

How is man expected to behave? How is a woman expected to behave?

What are the most important feelings people have toward each other (husband-wife, mother-daughter, superior-inferior, etc.)?

What are the (written and unwritten) rules which everyone is expected to follow?

GROUPS

How can you tell who has prestige or status and who does not?

Are there people who, without any effort on their part, have a better position than others? On what basis?

On what basis are people ranked? Can (and how does) a person move from a lower to high position?

Who is considered a member of the family? How many adults and children are customary in the family?

How are relatives provided for in the family? What responsibilities and rights do they have?

Are there other family members beyond the nuclear family? What are their rights and responsibilities? How is the extended family organized?

What organizations, religious, political, and social (formal and informal) are found?

Are most of the people similar in race, language, and beliefs? Does the larger group contain others with different or slightly different race, language and beliefs?

Expression

By what kinds of music, art, literature, drama, etc. do the people express themselves or the values of their culture? Are the art forms traditional? Is innovation encouraged?

SOCIALIZATION

Socialization Agencies

Who is the head of the family, that is, has power and authority?

What is the status relationship between men and women, old and young?

How do primary groups teach the essential values? Of whom are the primary groups composed?

What secondary groups support the learning of cultural values?

What kinds of groups does a child or adult of either sex typically belong to? Is competition encouraged?

What authorities outside of the family enforce customs? Do they use rewards or punishments? Of what kinds?

Socialization Processes

How long are the young considered to be unable to care for themselves?

What kinds of pressure is brought on young children to conform? What techniques are used? Who does it? What are the rewards given for conforming?

Do words and the use of certain expressions and ways of speaking demonstrate cultural values? Are some values expressed but not enacted?

What formal instruction (teaching) is given to children to teach them the ways of the culture?

What happens to people who break the rules or disobey norms?

Are there many who break the rules?

Are there any stories that tell of something bad happening as a result of someone not obeying group rules?

How are rules and norms changed?

Roles

What roles are found within the family? How does one learn his role? Do some people get around their formal role to gain more authority or influence in the family? How do different roles in the family help it accomplish its tasks? When is social manhood or womanhood achieved? Is it marked by ceremony?

Who serves as models of different roles? What happens when a person does not perform as he is expected to? Are there roles whose definition and attached expectations are changing?

What are some groups which a man, woman, boy or girl would belong to in political, social, religious or economic situation? How are some of the values of these groups supported? Are some groups more important than others? Are some positions (roles) more important in a group than others?

How do the people feel about outsiders? Who would be considered the most dangerous? Why? The most friendly? Why?

Ethnocentrism

What is seen as good (or bad) about certain outsiders?

Is any country or people considered beyond hope?

How is the character of this country or people described?

Who within the culture is treated differently because they are considered different or inferior?

What is the worst trait that a people can have according to the values of this culture? How are those feelings toward difference and strangers acted out?

ANTHROPOLOGY-SOCIOLOGY	Primary Level
CULTURE	Humans have created things and ideas for themselves. There are different cultures in the world.
BELIEF SYSTEMS	Some things are true and some are not true.
GROUPS	We belong to several groups: Family; School; Town; State; Nation. We have relationships with others in groups: Kinship; Friendship; Shared activity, etc.
SOCIALIZATION	We learn rules at home and in school. We grow up so we will work and live in adult society.
INSTITUTIONS	All children in our culture go to school.
MAN	People are different from animals and plants. Humans do many things for work and play.

ANTHROPOLOGY-SOCIOLOGY	Middle Level
CULTURE	All things we think, do, and have, are our culture. Different cultures think, do, and have different things.
BELIEF SYSTEMS	Our culture has certain beliefs. Other cultures have sets of beliefs.
GROUPS	Groups are parallel in different cultures Groups help determine how we act. We play certain roles in certain groups.
SOCIALIZATION	Rules are necessary for the smooth functioning of society. Our activities are preparing us for future work in society. People raise children to be members of the society.
INSTITUTIONS	School, church, government, are set up to help society function. Other cultures have institutions also.
MAN	Humans can engineer their world to fit their needs. Humans have common attributes regardless of race or culture. Humans can progress in their culture.

ANTHROPOLOGY-SOCIOLOGY	Secondary Level
CULTURE	A culture is a total system of ideas, activities, and things which organizes the lives of its members. Other cultures may be studied to discover their structures.
BELIEF SYSTEMS	People differ in their beliefs, within and between cultures. Beliefs may be found in reason, revelation, or conditioning. All cultures share certain universal beliefs.
GROUPS	Group membership may be selected or assigned. Members of a group may determine the behavior of other group members. Certain people naturally take certain roles in groups.
SOCIALIZATION	Rules come from tradition or are arrived at through social give-and-take. Society preserves its form through socialization processes. Child-rearing practices determine the nature of society.
INSTITUTIONS	Institutions are more difficult to change or modify than individuals. Institutions may be visible or hidden.
Man	Through science and technology, humans can shape their future. Man as a species is related to other forms of life. Humans are the most complex form of life.

CONCEPTS FROM

ECONOMICS

ECONOMICS

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS. To satisfy their most basic needs - food, clothing, shelter - humans have developed economic systems. The values which shape the day-to-day practices make up the foundation of such a system.

Values of Means. Popularly accepted methods or procedures for the formation and operation of the economic system. Each economic system has its own answer as to how it will produce, what it will produce, how much it will produce, and for whom it will produce. To the degree that people within a system are satisfied with the operation of the system, the means are accepted.

Values of Purposes. Popularly accepted reasons for the existence of the system. There is a tendency to accept the existing economic system as the "right" system in both its value and operational dimensions as long as needs are satisfied reasonably (each society determines its own definition of reasonableness).

Style and Strategy. Style is the method of operation taken by decision-makers within an economic system. Command, democratic, casual manipulation, etc. are types of style.

Strategy is an aspect of style. It is concerned with how basic values are utilized to effect control by decision-makers.

General Economic Types. Economic types are abstractions. Like types of political systems, they do not generally occur in pure form.

Hunting-Gathering. Hunting-gathering economic systems are the least complex. Labor is specialized along sex lines; i.e., men do certain jobs; women do certain jobs. This kind of system is low in productivity, does not get above subsistence level, nor has a large population.

Shifting Cultivation. Economic systems of this type are usually found in those geographic areas which have difficult climate and soil conditions. Those conditions necessitate movement from one area to another to maintain enough production to provide for the population. Population is small and productivity at subsistence levels. Traditions give the basic economic values. Nomadic herding is also considered a type of shifting economic activity.

Capitalist Economy. This type of economic system is characterized by industrial-technological activities, urbanized, mechanized agriculture, high productivity and high per capita income.

Free Competition. Free (uncontrolled by government) competition is the basic value and mode of operation. Prices and quality of goods are regulated by the wants of consumers, the competitive accumen of owners of property, and the supply of goods on hand.

Private Ownership. Private, personal or corporate ownership of means of production.

Profits/Profit Motive. Profits and the profit motive (i.e., desire to have as much money as possible left over after all costs have been met) are the prime motivators of the system.

Mixed Economy. A purely competitive system is not found in any capitalist or semi-capitalist nation; some government regulation always occurs. Governments may control, regulate or even own components of the system. When a capitalist system has significant government intervention, it is labelled a mixed economy.

Political Democracy. (See page 81 for definition) A usual feature of capitalist economies.

Socialist Economy. A socialist economic system is characterized by industrial-technological techniques which are based on reason and urbanized mechanized agriculture as well as high productivity and per capita income. It includes:

Public Ownership of the means of production, rather than profit, fair distribution of income, and cooperation are the basic values of the system.

Planning of economic development and distribution of resources is a characteristic of socialism.

Political and Economic Democracy (See page 81) are usual features of a socialist economy.

Privately Owned Enterprises are allowed in socialist economics. Usually only basic industries (e.g., steel, transportation) are government-owned.

Welfare Programs are usually extensive and inclusive in a socialist economy.

Communist Economy. Communist economic systems include industrial-technological techniques which are based on reason and mechanized, urbanized agriculture as well as a range of productivity, and per capita income from low to high.

Total Public Ownership of the means of production, equality of income, and end of economic conflict are the basic values of communist economic system.

Political and Economic Democracy (See page 81) are usually absent from communist societies as known to people of Western democracies. Totalitarian techniques are often employed in both political and economic spheres.

Privately Owned Enterprises are not allowed in communist societies. Personal private property is.

Welfare Programs are all-inclusive in communist societies.

Political and Economic Decision-Making are intimately interconnected in communist societies.

Corporate (Fascist) Economy. Corporate economic systems employ industrial-technological techniques. Production ranges from high to low.

Nationalism, traditionalism, economic stability, efficiency, little competition, and large corporate structures are the basic values.

Economic activities are under the control of limited number of large, private corporations. National direction of economic activities is in the hands of political leaders.

Political and economic democracy is usually absent in corporate societies.

Welfare Programs are not well-developed.

SCARCITY. Goods and services are scarce (limited) in relation to the wants (demands) which exist for them. Productive resources are scarce or limited; the production of goods and services requires resources.

Wants/Needs. Wants, or demands, relate to the consumer's ability to buy goods and services in the market. Wants usually increase when goods are offered at a lower price. Needs are basic requirements as defined by a society. In a hunting/gathering society, they are few; in an advanced technological society what is considered basic may be quite a lot.

Consumer. People whose wants are satisfied by the purchase of goods and services.

Capital Goods are those tools which are used to produce consumer goods.

Consumer Goods are those that are utilized in and of themselves and not in order to contribute to increased production.

Services are purchasable actions performed to satisfy wants and needs (e.g., a waiter, doctor, teacher).

Goods and Services become more and more complex and specialized as societies shift from simple to complex production techniques.

Demand is the desire, or want, of consumers for specific goods and services.

Supply refers to the amounts of goods and services available to satisfy demands.

Prices are, theoretically, determined by the supply/demand ratio. As demand rises and supply diminishes, in an ideal model, prices rise. In more simple economies, if supplies and demands are not balanced, starvation may result. In complex economies price is affected by many factors, including values, government controls, etc.

PRODUCTION

Resources (raw materials) are those objects in the natural environment (organic and inorganic) which are capable of being processed into goods.

Capital is the funding needed to exploit resources. When capital is severely limited as in the less-developed nations, utilization of resources may also be limited.

Labor. All economic systems have workers. In simple economic systems labor is not diversified nor specialized (except on the basis of sex). Developing and developed nations need skilled, educated labor and great specialization. Labor is not only skilled craftsmen and unskilled workers, but also all workers whether mentally or physically productive, in an economic system.

Market. Both capital and consumer goods produced must have some consumer outlet. The consumer must be capable of purchasing these goods and services in the market. Low per capita income areas which lack other means of exchanging goods may depend on older simpler exchange procedures (e.g., bartering).

Transportation. Goods must be transferred from production source to market. The more extensive the transportation network, the more advanced an economic system is likely to be.

Technology is composed of not only tools that are employed in economic production but the techniques of production, as well. Simple economies utilize few tools, each with many functions, and do not base production on reasoning, but on ritual, traditional techniques. Advanced economic systems have a wide variety of tools (hand tools to computers) which may be powered. They have production techniques which are based on reason. The degree of technological competence helps to determine the degree of control of the environment.

Production. Agriculture, mining, fishing, and manufacturing create goods; transportation, storage, and retailing are some other facets of production. Administration and planning are still other aspects.

Consumption. The use of goods and services to satisfy human wants.

Capital Accumulation. The process by which monies are accumulated to be used for investment. Saving is the usual method. Saving implies not consuming goods and services. Simple and subsistent economies have difficulty producing enough goods or services to accumulate investment capital. Advanced systems play the accumulation of capital to sustain growth. Less-developed economies, with low per capital incomes and wishing to develop their resources, may seek ways to accumulate capital. Increased production means more sources of investment capital.

Specialization. Division of labor or specialization is a term to describe how a society divides up its work. In simple systems a division of work is made according to sex with all tasks done by the sex assigned to it. In advanced systems, specialization is very complex and the interlinks between tasks to be performed express the dependence of one task on another. Specialization leads to interdependence. Increased specialization increases production.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND

Demand is the desire, or want, of consumers for specific goods and services.

Supply refers to the amounts of goods and services available to satisfy demands.

Consumer. People whose wants are satisfied by the purchase of goods and services.

Allocation (who gets what and how much) is always uneven and a continuing problem of decision-making. Values play an important role in determining allocation.

Exchange. The voluntary transfer of goods or performance of services in return for other goods, services, or money.

Distribution. The way in which income or earnings is divided among recipients engaged in production. Labor payment is wages; capital payment is interest; land payment is rent and entreprenuership payment is profit. Who gets what share - the analysis of distribution - tells much about the values of a system.

GROWTH is an increase in the amount of economic activity. It is usually manifested as a change in the total amount of goods and services produced in the system, and as an increase in the stock of capital assets. Growth is necessary for most modern industrial economies to operate efficiently and continue in operation.

INTERDEPENDENCE. The relationship of people, regions, and nations in the world economy, such that an action or change in one sector, industry, or country usually causes changes in other sectors. Increasing specialization and complexity makes these sectors more and more dependent on each other.

ECONOMICS: Some Suggested Focus Questions

Economic System

What evidence is there for the classification of the economic system?

What are basic economic values? What are the expressed goals? Which goals appear to being enacted?

Does there appear to be general agreement on how well the system satisfies wants? What groups are least satisfied? Which most satisfied? How is wealth distributed among the population? Who has the most? The least?

What are the basic techniques of economic decision-making, e.g., market (supply and demand), government, etc.? Do they match up with expressed political values and ideas? Are the techniques formal or informal? Is economic development an expressed value? What are the obstacles to its accomplishment?

Economic Analysis

Who (individuals or organizations) gets how much wealth? On what basis?

What are the economic expectations of different groups of the society as a whole?

What consumers (individuals and organizations) are there and what products do they consume?

Goods and Services

How extensive is capital goods production? What capital goods needs are apparent?

What consumer goods are produced? What is the relationship between capital and consumer goods production (more consumer than capital, etc.)?

What services are offered? Are scarce?

Demand and Supply

What kinds of goods and services are desired? By whom?

How adequate is production to satisfy demands? If not, in what area? Why not?

How does the pricing system reflect supply and demand? Does the government control prices in any way?

Factors of Production

What natural resources are utilized?

What sources of capital are available? Are problems of capital accumulation evident?

Is labor skilled or unskilled? Urban or rural? What procedures are there for training labor forces? What technical and managerial workers are available? Is there a market for raw materials? Capital goods? Consumer goods?

Is there a market wealthy enough to sustain growth or is there a close balance between production and consumption? What is the per capita income? What is the range of wealth among groups within the society?

Is there a well-developed transportation network?

What are the techniques of production? Are they controlled by reason, mechanized, etc.? What tools are available for production?

Economic Activities

What kinds of agricultural or industrial goods are produced? What techniques are employed? How and by whom are production plans developed (chief? commisar? businessman?) How successful is production in meeting demands? Is there a disparity between goals and productive capacity? How do means of production influence the lives of people (income, lifespan, effect on education of children, etc.)?

What are the techniques of exchange (barter, competition, etc.)?

How is wealth divided? On what basis? What hierarchy of income if found? On what basis? How is the income divided into personal, savings, and investment (and taxes)? What activities are taxed?

What problems, if any, does the culture have accumulating enough capital for investment and development? How willing are people to forego immediate consumption for long-range development toals?

Specialization

What are the economic roles? Who learns them? What are considered most important? What interdependent links are found between them?

How does specialization influence production?

Decision-Making

Who are the decision-makers? How are they chosen? How is decision-making influenced? What competing interest groups exist?

Conflict and Conflict Resolution

What are some of the sources of conflict? What conflicts have occurred in the past? What are evidence today?

What traditional techniques are used to resolve conflict? What ad hoc techniques are used to resolve conflicts?

ECONOMICS	Primary Level
ECONOMIC SYSTEMS	
SCARCITY	All people need certain goods and services in order to live. Not everyone in the world has all the goods and services he wants.
PRODUCTION	People make usable goods from natural resources. Many people work to produce goods and services, in many different ways.
SUPPLY AND DEMAND	If enough people want something, someone will produce it.
GROWTH	
INTERDEPENDENCE	Members of a family are dependent on each other's work. We get our goods and services from many places and people.

ECONOMICS	Middle Level
ECONOMIC SYSTEMS	Systems for producing and distributing goods and services are large and complex. There are several different types of economic systems.
SCARCITY	Resources, goods, and services are limited in supply. Decisions must be made as to who gets what goods and services. There is no "free lunch."
PRODUCTION	Production of goods and services is done in several different ways: size, style, location, technology, etc. Specialization increases the efficiency of production. Resources and labor are necessary for production.
SUPPLY AND DEMAND	Consumer demand determines the amount of goods produced. Markets and prices serve to exchange goods and services. Choices are made by consumers as to which goods and services they will use.
GROWTH	Economic systems and procedures may change over time. Economic growth affects people and environment.
INTERDEPENDENCE	Regions and nations are interdependent economically. Changes in one part of the economic system cause changes in other parts. A person's work depends on others if it is to be productive.

ECONOMICS	Secondary Level
ECONOMIC SYSTEMS	Different economic systems are based upon different philosophies and world-views. Economic systems affect political systems and vice-versa. Few economic systems in existence are pure examples of a type.
SCARCITY	Scarcity is the basis of economics. Needs are perceived differently in different places and in different cultures.
PRODUCTION	Goods are produced to meet real, perceived, or created needs. Automation is a means of increasing productivity. Production is the act of using labor to produce value from resources.
SUPPLY AND DEMAND	Consumers affect the economic system through their chosen purchases. Price is determined by both the supply of and the demand for a given good or service. Allocation systems reflect social beliefs and values.
GROWTH	For most economic systems, growth is necessary for efficient operation. Economic change and growth affects the way of life of a culture.
INTERDEPENDENCE	Economic decisions in one sector or nation affect conditions in many areas. Government, industry, and technology are dependent on each other for the proper functioning of our economic system.

CONCEPTS FROM

GEOGRAPHY

LAND-MAN RELATIONSHIPS. Humans are part of an ecological relationship within the natural environment. Increasingly, humans have struggled to control and adapt the environment to his own uses. Geographic factors do not determine the type or amount of adaptation, although they limit them. Culture, especially its technological aspects, shapes control, use, and adaptation to natural environment.

Region. A specific area which has some homogeneity resulting from the association of related features. It is always defined in terms of specific criteria. These criteria may include:

Climate. The average condition of the atmosphere over a long period of time: wind velocity, temperature, precipitation.

Soil. The upper layer of the earth, including aspects of texture, mineral content, and humus content.

Texture. This varies from gravelly to clay. Somewhere in between these is the greatest amount of production.

Leaching. Done by rain and other water, this action depletes the mineral content of soil.

Humus. The process of decaying vegetation mixing with topsoil. The most productive soils have high humus content.

Vegetation. The natural plant growth of an area. Affected by climate and soil.

Winds. Prevailing winds are those that blow from the same direction for long periods of time.

Currents. River-like movement of sections of the ocean which influence land bodies.

Land Forms. The shape of the earth. Simple forms are plains, plateaus, hills, and mountains with plains usually best for farming (depending on their climate and soil) and mountains the worst.

Cultural Area. Often regions are defined in terms of cultural homogeneity - language, religion, customs, etc. (Canada and the United States may be considered a culture area.)

Areal Coherence. The concept that things in a given area are not simply thrown together but exist in some meaningful association which it is possible to analyze.

Spacial Interaction. The exchange of goods, services, ideas, etc. between one specialized area and another.

Localization. Concentration of an activity within a limited area.

Scale. Large and small areas may be analyzed for the inter-relationship of their functions, environments, and interactions. Generalizations drawn from large-scale analyses are only valid for other large-scale studies; small-scale generalizations are good only for localized areas.

Change. The concept that areas and components of areas are in a constant state of change and can only be understood as change is taken into account.

Land Use. Cultures use the environment in different ways. Even the same or similar environments may be used differently by different people. Culture is the major determining factor how the land is used. The more technologically advanced a culture, the greater control of the environment, the greater the diversity of land use.

MAPS. Tools used to analyze areal relationships. Graphic two-dimensional representations of selected areal factors.

Projection. Maps distort the true shape and size of the places of the earth because they try to represent a round object on a flat surface.

Scale. The larger the scale of a map the closer it is to reality and the more details that can be shown.

Symbol. A shorthand used on maps to conserve space and show details. Colors, drawing, dots, circles, lines, etc. are used as symbols.

Also including topography, climate rainfall, temperature, vegetation, land use, land forms, political, and so forth.

POPULATION

Distribution(Land/Person Ratio). People are distributed unevenly over the surface of the earth. Special maps show this distribution.

Differential Growth of Population. Areas of the earth show rapid population growth; others show population stability. The balance between births and deaths and the causes of variances are of concern to geographers since they have direct effect on economic and political development.

Population Density(Land/Person Ratio). The number of inhabitants per square mile; sometimes the number of inhabitants per square mile of arable or urban land. (This information is useless unless the distribution of people within that area is also examined.)

Overpopulation. This term refers to a condition which arises when a region does not have enough economic resources to provide adequate living for the people who inhabit, no matter how many or how few they are.

Population Movements.

Migration. Any mass movement from one region to another.

Pastoral Nomadism. Moving over large distances to pasture flocks. The entire group moves.

Transhumance. Long-distance seasonal movement of livestock by a few shepherds.

Seasonal Workers. Migratory workers moving from one crop area to another.

Urban Area. An urban area is any central place with a population over 2,500 performing non-agricultural economic activities for surrounding areas.

Rural. Rural refers to areas of low population density performing agricultural functions.

Suburban. Suburban areas are those residential areas usually surrounding central (urban) places. Census-takers and geographers usually consider suburbs a component of urban areas and establish the line of division between urban and rural population by determining the number of people in the suburbs working either in support of the city or the rural area.

Central Place Theory. Central places are those areas of human habitation which have non-agricultural functions.

Spacial Hierarchy. Urban areas can be ranked in a spacial hierarchy according to the size and functions. For example:

Town or Villages. Lowest population (1000-3000). They provide surrounding settlements with basic services (grocery, drug, hardware, bank, etc.).

Small Cities. Population of 5000+. They perform more complex services - clothing, shoe, furniture stores, lumber yard, hotels, mortuaries, and so forth. They require larger surrounding population to support them. The sphere of influence of the small city usually includes several towns or villages.

Medium City. Population 15,000-40,000. It is characterized by the wholesale purchase and sale of goods and even more specialized service functions. Sphere of influence includes small cities, towns and villages.

Major City. Population 50,000 and more. They are characterized by their function as regional headquarters with commodity exchanges, insurance offices, large department stores, convention hotels, manufacturing, etc. Wide sphere of influence.

World Cities. They have a population of 1,000,000 or more. They are characterized as national hubs which combine all functions previously mentioned with a sphere of influence reaching around the world.

Accessibility. This is a term which refers to the number of linkages a place has with the surrounding areas (hinterland). The more links the larger the population.

Hinterland. The sphere of influence of a city is determined by the effects it has on its surrounding areas or hinterland. Influence is shaped by the number and type of links the city has with the hinterland: newspaper distribution, telephone connections, wholesale deliveries, and other trading activities.

Situation. Description of the location of a city in terms of the factors (including social ones) which influenced that location.

Site. The analysis of the physical environment in which a city is located.

Internal Structure

Divisions of a City. Like the spacial hierarchy, the divisions of the city do not always occur in the idealized pattern described here.

Central Business District. The downtown area of a city with administrative offices for government and business and large department stores; low population density and main traffic arteries.

Manufacturing Belt. Surrounding central business district is a belt where light manufacturing takes place; light population.

Older Residences. Near the light manufacturing areas may be a delapidated residential area peopled by the poor. Slum is a common term for type of area. When this area is composed of minority ethnic groups forced to live in the area regardless of ability to pay higher rents, it is referred to as a ghetto.

Heavy Manufacturing Area. This area surrounds the city where there is access to transportation facilities and land is less valuable.

Residential Area. This area is composed of middle-to high-income families working in central places. Increase in accessibility to the city is pushing this area further and further away from the central business district. Satellite shopping and service areas develop within these areas, and reduce the importance of the central business district as a shopping center. High population concentrations.

Urban Functions. Functions performed by the city may be divided into (a) those which bring money from outside the city into it (basic function); and (b) those which circulate money within the city (non-basic function). The function which brings in the most money is the city's major function. (The U.S. Census Bureau provides extensive information for analyzing American cities.) Primary Centers deal with the processing and storage of raw materials; and Secondary Centers deal with distribution, finance, secondary manufacturing, and socio-cultural activities.

Typical functions of cities include the following:

Commerce. Exchange centers, banking, insurance, buying and selling on large scale involving transportation from place to place (Hartford, Conn.).

Transportation. Breakpoint centers where goods are shifted from one mode of transportation to another, warehouse storage (Chicago), great accessibility.

Socio-Cultural. Educational centers (Berkeley, Calif.) recreational centers (Las Vegas), administrative centers (Washington, D.C.), religious centers (Vatican City).

Processing. Centers whose basic function is the conversion of raw materials into more finished products (Pittsburgh, Pa.).

ECOLOGY. The relationships between living organisms and their environment and how they depend on each other. Humans live in an ecological relationship with other living organisms. All organisms must live in harmony with their environment. Humans alone, among all living organisms, cause incorrectable damage to the environment.

Earth. The earth is an ecosystem in the universe.

Mutual Relationships must be built with other living things in our ecosystem.

Ecological Changes occur by natural selection, evolutionary processes, and by man-made alterations to his environment.

Pollution. Water pollution: natural occurances and man-made. Nature can correct her mistakes and maintain life, but nature cannot always correct man-made pollution and maintain life.

Air pollution: five of man's activities: Transportation, Industry, Power Generation, Heating, and Refuse Disposal: are responsible for most of the air pollution.

Transportation	60%
Industry	18%
Power Generation	14%
Heating	10%
Refuse Disposal	5%

NATURAL RESOURCES. Elements of the earth, air, and ocean which humans can use to provide them with necessities and creature comforts. It is a proven fact that most resources are limited in amount. Nature can recycle natural products Humans produce some non-recyclable materials and break the natural process.

Use of Resources. "Use it up, wear it out, make it do, or do without." "Throw away container -- no deposit, no return." Resources may be used in a planned recycle program, or in a system of planned obsolescence, and one-time use.

GEOGRAPHY: Some Suggested Focus Questions

Region

What factor occurs throughout the area to justify calling it a region?

What is (are) the climate pattern(s) of the region?

What is (are) the soil pattern(s) of the region? What is the condition of the soil?

What is (are) the vegetation pattern(s) of the region? What does that pattern indicate about agricultural possibilities?

What are the wind and ocean current patterns of the region? How do these patterns influence the people of the region?

What land forms are found in the region?

What cultural factors made it possible to consider all the space in one region?

How do all the factors above relate to each other to form a region? How do the factors influence human habitation? How have humans tried to overcome the limitations of the physical environment?

Land Use

How do people use the land in the region? How much control do they exercise over natural conditions? Why are certain economic activities where they are?

Maps

How do maps show the factors which influence human habitation?

Population

How are people distributed in the region? What factors influence the way they are distributed?

Why does the population grow faster in one region than another?

How many people are there per square mile? How many are there per square rural or urban mile? What is the difference between the two figures? Why is population dense in some areas of the region and not so dense in others? Are there places where the economic resources are not adequate to provide for the people living there?

Population Movement

Are there definite shifts in the population? What are the causes of these movements?

Urban Areas

What is the balance between the rural and urban population?

How are urban areas distributed?

Central Place

What is the spacial hierarchy of the urban areas? Which type of urban areas is most common? What major and world cities are in the region?

How accessible are major cities to their hinterlands? What forms of linkage join them?

What is the sphere of influence of the city? How is it determined?

Why are cities located where they are?

What is the internal structure of the region's cities? What factors have contributed to that structure?

What are the divisions of the city?

What are the functions of the city? According to what function is the city classified?

Ecology

How do humans affect their environment? How does it affect them?

Which human activities are damaging to the ecosystem?

GEOGRAPHY	Primary Level
LAND/MAN RELATIONSHIPS	The land and climate affect the way people live. There are different environments in different places on the earth.
MAPS	A map is a diagram of a certain place (home, school, etc.) There are many different types of maps.
POPULATION	People live in different places and in different ways on the earth. Some places have more population than others.
NATURAL RESOURCES	Many useful resources are on and in the land around us. Resources are taken from the land to be made into useful things.
ADAPTATION	Humans can change their living style to fit into the natural environment.
ECOLOGY	Changes in one part of the natural environment cause changes in other parts.

GEOGRAPHY	Middle Level
LAND/MAN RELATIONSHIPS	The climate of a region is affected by latitude, land forms, altitude, and location. A region is an area sharing common features of environment. Different cultures use the land in different ways.
MAPS	Maps may be in different scales. Maps often use symbols, colors, lines, etc. to represent different things. The same area may be mapped in many different ways, for different purposes.
POPULATION	Population is distributed irregularly on the land. Population ranges from none to very dense. People move and cause shifts in population over time. People live in urban, suburban, and rural areas. Cities are complex population centers.
NATURAL RESOURCES	Most resources are limited in amount. Humans must use resources carefully if they are to last. Most resources can be recycled.
ADAPTATION	Culture is formed as an adaptation to a natural environment. Humans adapt their living to urban, suburban, or rural environments. Economic and social changes require humans to adapt in order to survive.
ECOLOGY	Humans live in close relationship with all other living organisms on the earth. What humans do affects the whole system of life on earth.

GEOGRAPHY	Secondary Level
LAND/MAN RELATIONSHIPS	Humans are part of an ecological system on the earth: they affect the natural environment as it affects them. Increased technology has allowed many different forms of land use. Humans' relationship with the land is changing.
MAPS	Flat maps distort true size and shape as they represent a sperical earth. Mapping by different atttributes helps explain the culture, activities, and social problems of an area.
POPULATION	The growth of population has severe effects on the economy, society, and geography of an area. Humans have the potential to control population growth and distribution. Areas of different population density have different social and cultural organizations and problems.
NATURAL RESOURCES	Resource use is a moral and political question, as well as an economic one. Humans can control their use of resources and make plans for alternative futures.
ADAPTATION	Human adaptation to land and technology is cognitive and cultural rather than genetic. Humans can control the conditions he must adapt to some extent.
ECOLOGY	Human activities in recent years have caused many noticeable changes in the earth's ecology. Ecological disaster can be avoided through rational planning and choices.

CONCEPTS FROM

HISTORY

HISTORY

CAUSE AND EFFECT. Events do not occur without reasons or definite causes. A description of an event is not complete without an analysis of its causes and effects.

Multiple Causation. Most events in history have more than one identifiable cause, and may have other causes which cannot be identified. A study of one cause alone does not lead to true understanding of an event.

Consequences. Most historical events are causes for other events which follow. Consequences may be immediate and obvious or they may lag behind with subtle effects. They may affect areas and events far from the original activity.

CHANGE. The processes of cause and effect, of past changing to future necessarily implies change. Change may be analyzed by comparing the situation before an event with the situation after the event.

Social Change. Change in the nature, composition, or power of different groups of people.

Cultural Change. Change in the folkways, customs, or belief system of a society, usually long term.

Technological Change. The effect of tools and machines on the way of life of a people.

CONTINUITY. The sum of elements in a society which do not change over time. In analyzing any change, the customs, institutions, activities, and beliefs which remain the same must be kept in mind.

A sense of continuity in human events may be developed by studying the past, the present, and the future in the same course or curriculum.

CONFLICT. Conflict may be observed between ideas, persons, groups, species; between humans and their environment or technology; it may be violent, peaceful, obvious or subtle. Conflict is often the impetus for change or progress, but can cause destruction and regression.

War. A violent form of inter-group conflict.

Value Conflict. Differences in belief on a given issue.

Political Conflict. Differences between organized interest groups within a society. An example is the regular election process in the United States.

Ideological Conflict. Differences between societies or cultures with unlike values and belief systems. An example is the "Cold War" between the Soviet Union and the United States of 1946-1970.

Interpersonal Conflict. Conflict between individuals, which may parallel the other forms of conflict above.

Conflict Resolution. Methods used to end a situation of conflict, especially those based on rational approaches to problem-solving.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE. The point of view where every event is seen as connected with its causes, precursors, parallels, and consequences in the past and in the future. No event is so isolated that it cannot be analyzed through such a perspective. Methods for applying an historical perspective include Analogy, Parallel Situations, Futures Forecasting, Cause-Effect-Consequence analysis, etc.

EVIDENCE. The method of history is based on the gathering of data on past events. Not all data is treated equally.

Primary Source. Evidence contemporary with the event being studied.

Secondary Source. Evidence gathered from primary sources and organized.

Quality of Evidence. Depending on its source or context, certain data may be more trustworthy or relevant than other data.

Research is the activity engaged in to discover, gather, and organize historical evidence. It may involve many types and levels of sources.

Facts are the simplest form of data. A true fact is evidence which is not colored by opinion or human interpretation.

HISTORY: Some Suggested Focus Questions

Cause and Effect

What are the short-term causes of the event? The long term causes?
Which causes were directly controlled by humans?
How will this even change the people directly involved?
How will others be changed?
Of the various causes of the event, which are most important?

Change

How are things different after the event from what they were before?
Was this change for better or worse? How did you decide?
How can technological change cause social or cultural change?
What changes will take place between now and 5 years from now? 20 Years? 100 years?

Continuity

What things have remained the same during the period of change?
What things are continuous over all time for all people in all places?
How many things we do today were done by people 10 years ago? 100 years ago? 1000 years ago?

Conflict

What are the relationships between psychical and physical conflict?
Did this conflict result in progress or regression?
What are the values or beliefs behind this conflict?
Which method of conflict resolution would best fit this situation?

Historical Perspective

What things we have today were used 20 years ago? 100 years ago?
Do ideas have a history? How are they carried through time?
Did people in (another time and place) think the same way we do?
About the same things?
Does this situation have a parallel in history? How might it show up in the future?

Evidence

How do we know that Columbus sailed the Atlantic, or anything else that happened before?
What criteria should be used in judging the quality of historical data?
On this subject, which sources would be most trustworthy? Least? How did you decide?
How can we find new evidence on an historical event?

HISTORY	Primary Level
CAUSE AND EFFECT	All events are caused by something else. For anything that happens, we may ask "Why did that happen?" Every event or action has consequences.
CHANGE	People and places change over time - they are different now from what they were before.
CONTINUITY	Some things always remain the same, no matter what happens. All people and places in the world have some things in common.
CONFLICT	People do not always agree, and problems sometimes arise. Conflicts can be solved if they are studied and worked out.
HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	The things that happen to us today happened to people in the past and in other places. People who lived before us have set up many of the things we use today.
EVIDENCE	We observe events using our eyes, ears, and other senses. Some things are facts, and some are opinions.

HISTORY	Middle Level
CAUSE AND EFFECT	Most events do not have a single cause. Many factors are involved in its happening. Every event has many consequences which must be taken into consideration.
CHANGE	Some cultures change more quickly than others. Humans adapt to changes in their surroundings. Changes may be valued as good and progressive or as problematic and regressive.
CONTINUITY	We may identify the things which relate us to the past, the future, and to other people of today. Institutions and whole cultures change more slowly than people and individual events.
CONFLICT	Conflict may exist in different forms: between individuals; between groups; between humans and environment. Conflict is evident as violence, difference of opinion, or exchange of ideas. Conflict may be physical or mental.
HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	Most events have had historical parallels or precursors. Study of the past helps us to understand what's going on today and what might happen in the future.
EVIDENCE	We must have good evidence to understand events of the past or current events. Certain evidence is better or more believable than other evidence.

HISTORY	Secondary Level
CAUSE AND EFFECT	Human events are the consequences of many interrelated factors rather than of single factors. Both causes and effects can be long- or short-range, obvious or subtle.
CHANGE	The rate of change in industrial societies has accelerated in recent years. Change in one sector of a culture usually causes change in other areas. Change may be revolutionary or evolutionary, human or technical, violent or subtle.
CONTINUITY	Human experience is interrelated through time and across space by many factors. Human motivation and social functions have remained similar in all times and all places.
CONFLICT	Conflict is usually caused by many factors, some controllable and some given. Physical violence is only one manifestation of conflict. Conflict resolution may be analyzed and used scientifically even with ideological conflicts.
HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	Each period of history cannot be adequately understood without knowledge of past periods. Understanding of and dealing with the present is facilitated by study of the past through analogy and causal chains. Prediction of human events requires historical knowledge.
EVIDENCE	The same evidence may be used to support very different interpretations. All historical evidence is colored by human perception and interpretation. The validity of data may be judged by several criteria.

CONCEPTS FROM

POLITICAL SCIENCE

GOVERNMENT.

Political System. An interlocking, interacting set of values, structures, behaviors and processes relative to the legitimate regulation and utilization of force in enforcing rules within a given territorial area. More simply, the legitimate exercise of power (being able to do) and authority (having the right to do) in a particular place.

Types of Systems.

Democratic. Those systems in which the populace retains direct control over decision-making.

Republican - Parliamentary. Those systems in which the populace has indirect control over decision-making through the election of representatives of the people. This system is sometimes referred to as representative democracy.

Authoritarian. Those systems in which decision-making is in the hands of an elite group. They are not necessarily repressive, except to political enemies.

Totalitarian. Those systems which center decision-making in the hands of a small group of leaders and which attempt to control the whole life - the thoughts, actions - of the people through control of education, mass media, religion, etc.

Monarchial. Those systems in which a hereditary leader (king, sultan, chief) has the ultimate decision-making prerogative.

POWER. The capacity of one individual or group to act to affect the behavior of others.

Power Influence. Relationships between people or organizations in a political system defined in terms of their relative high-medium-low power positions in a number of key structures in major areas of activity such as business, government, political parties, or interest groups. High power positions, or status, are often associated with what is sometimes termed "correlates of power." These include wealth, competence, education, and others. The power influence of an individual or group has three dimensions: (1) weight - the degree of deference to one's views to which one is customarily entitled: (2) scope - the range of values or resources controlled by the political actor; and (3) domain - the group of people over whom weight and scope are exercised.

Legitimacy. As the power influence pattern stabilizes, it tends to produce rules of conduct based on explicit and widely accepted standards of control. These rules of the game, whether written or simply understood through custom and usage, tend to become the accepted norms of subordinates. These accepted norms or expectations support the popular belief that the political

arrangement is not only necessary and desirable but also the reflection of reality. In short, legitimacy is believing that leaders have a right to lead and should be doing so.

Authority. The individual or group is understood to have more or less authority depending upon amount of formal power influence. The more power one has the greater one's authority.

RULES AND LAW.- Formal means of social control developed by society.

Constitution. Constitution in one important sense refers to a collection of expressions, written and unwritten, that make up a portion of the publically accepted formula for power influence distribution and use. A constitution prescribes how power influence should be distributed, but it may also describe.

Rule. Rule refers to the effective distribution and use of the capability to control, whether or not they are expected or even morally accepted.

Law. Formalizations of norms of social behavior.

Mechanisms of Control:

Persuasion. Gaining acceptance of decisions through appeal to values, needs, logic, fear, etc., in an argumentative, direct way.

Manipulation. Gaining acceptance of decisions through indirect means by appealing to emotions, assuming one position when another is really sought, controlling media output, and other insidious means to gain acceptance.

Coercion. The use of police power or other means of force such as the threat of force, to gain conformity or acceptance of a decision.

Rights are constitutionally-guaranteed and/or socially accepted prerogatives of society's members which are not to be denied by government, except through careful processes or clear guidelines.

Responsibilities are expectations which the society has for its members, especially as regards the respecting of the rights of others in the society.

Decision-Making. Decision-making is authoritative action which chooses policy.

IDEOLOGY. Beliefs, philosophy, or principles which may form the basis or rationale for a political position or institution. Ideology is often based on a combination of beliefs about economic systems, human nature, and social organization. Ideology may be a conscious and deliberate part of every day life, as in the USSR or the People's Republic of China, or it may be an unconscious common set of beliefs on the part of the people. The espoused ideology may or may not be evident in political practice.

CITIZENSHIP. The set of behaviors values, and beliefs which are expected of a member of a given society. Citizenship in a society may be clearly and operationally defined, or it may be nebulous and open to wide interpretation. It is usually based on ideology.

Political Behavior. Voting, speaking, writing, or acting to support or reject a candidate, position, or belief. May be as an individual or with a group, formal or informal, well-planned or accidental.

Social Values. Beliefs about the nature of humans and society which may or may not be expressed as behavior. Members of society or culture usually share a common set of values.

POLITICAL SCIENCE: Some Suggested Focus Questions

Political System

Regime

What are the basic political values, goals and rules?

Who has the most power? Is it based on tradition, on charisma, on selection by the majority? Who has the least power? Why? How much power do leaders have? How do they back up their power?

Why do the people accept the exercise of power (the decisions made by those who are leaders?) Is there general acceptance of the system? Are challenges to the system evident? What is the basis of criticism? Is criticism of all types allowed? If not, what kind of criticism, including actions, is allowed?

How is the authority of a decision-maker recognized? When, at what level of decision-making, can a decision be challenged? How? How do citizens learn how to influence the political system? Are there written documents which describe the powers of decision-makers?

What techniques do decision-makers use to enforce their decisions?

Do they use persuasion, manipulation, or coercion to enforce decisions?

How are decisions made?

Political Behavior

What are some of the roles in the system (from leader to subject)? How does a new member come to know his role? Is there general satisfaction with the role hierarchy? Can an outsider become a participant in this political system?

Have role changes occured in the last (?) years? What kinds of changes? What factors have influenced these changes?

How do people as role players interact (leaders and led; one interest group vs. another, etc.)?

What are the ranks of roles from lowest to highest? On what basis is the ranking done? Is there a possibility of moving up from one level to another? Moving down?

Political Culture

What political acts are acceptable? What social values are enacted by the political system?

What reasons are given for supporting, or not supporting, the government?

What are political issues of importance to the people? How do they communicate their feelings, wants, and demands to decision-makers (voting, petition, confrontation, messages, etc.)? What processes are available to influence decision-making and to make decisions known? What roles does the mass media play in making decisions, informing of decisions, and building mass receptiveness to decisions?

How do family members help instill political values? How do educational processes and media strengthen political values?

Who is trained to become part of the government? What social conditions have affected traditional political values?

Decision-Making

What are the roles of the various leaders?

How are they chosen?

Is their control formal or informal?

What competing interest groups are found? How are they formed?

What is the basis of their competition?

Who can influence decision-makers? How?

What formal, traditional procedures are followed in decision-making?

How are formal procedures overlooked, short-circuited, or otherwise by-passed in day-to-day informal operation?

Who defines the needs of economic groups, social groups, etc. in political terms?

POLITICAL SCIENCE	Primary Level
GOVERNMENT	The people and groups who make laws and rules are called the government. Family and school operate under rules and laws.
POWER	Some people have control over what other people do.
RULES AND LAW	We live under rules and laws at home, in school, and in the community. Rules and laws help us work and protect our health and safety.
DECISION-MAKING	Decisions are made by all of us every day. The reasons for our decisions may be studied.
IDEOLOGY	What we believe in may determine how we act.
CITIZENSHIP	Cooperation is necessary for people to live together. Good behavior helps us all work together.

POLITICAL SCIENCE	Middle Level
GOVERNMENT	Governments are formed by society to preserve order and provide common benefits. There are several forms and styles of government possible.
POWER	Political power is the ability to influence others' decisions. Power may be studied in terms of its scope and its strength.
RULES AND LAW	Laws are based on the beliefs and values of the people in a society. Laws are made as a means to ensure social control and orderly living.
DECISION-MAKING	Individual decisions affect the way of life in the society. Group decisions may be made by several different methods.
IDEOLOGY	Ideology is based on a set of diverse beliefs and values, political, religious, economic, etc.
CITIZENSHIP	Citizenship is a combination of values, beliefs, and actions in a social setting. It includes decision-making, rule-following, ideology, and an understanding of government.

POLITICAL SCIENCE	Secondary Level
GOVERNMENT	Governments range from those rationally and deliberately designed, to those based on tradition and raw power. Government has several distinct functions.
POWER	Political power usually is related to economic, social class, race, or other form of power. Power may be expressed openly or subtly, consciously or unconsciously; through military, economic, or social agents.
RULES AND LAW	"The U. S. is a nation of laws and men." The legal process has developed over the years into a complex and comprehensive social system. Law is a codification of the norms of the society.
DECISION-MAKING	Emotions, values, ideology, power, etc., must be arbitrated by reason for good decision-making. Decisions are made in different ways at different levels in the society.
IDEOLOGY	Ideology is a complex social phenomenon which may be manifest or subtle. Its influence may range from very strong to hardly noticeable. Ideology may affect economic, political, and moral decisions in a society.
CITIZENSHIP	Citizenship is properly seen as a balance of individual freedom and social control, reflected in one's thought and behavior. Involvement by members in social and political processes is necessary for the society to progress.

CONCEPTS FROM

PSYCHOLOGY

BEHAVIOR means anything a person does, says, or thinks. It includes all behaviors: emotional responses, attitudes, reading, doing math, looking into a mirror, overt and covert, "good" and "bad."

Innate Behavior is behavior caused by reactions which are there at birth, such as eyeblink and sucking in humans.

Learned Behavior is a result of adaptations of the mind and body caused by experiences. Most human behavior is learned in whole or in part.

Thought is covert behavior of the mind. Thinking occurs in all humans of all ages, but its structure changes substantially as the person develops.

BELIEFS AND VALUES

Beliefs are general mental constructs or rules which help humans explain and deal with the world. The term belief is used mostly to apply to cultural, social, or religious ideas which are common to a group of people.

Values are more specific mental constructs, rules or principles; which a person develops to help explain the world and make decisions in a social setting. Values are developed through the person's general social and cognitive interaction, his experiences of "cognitive conflict", and his opportunities for restructuring of his value structure. Values may be different for different people in different cultures, but the structure of the value system develops similarly in all humans.

RELIGION is an organized system of beliefs and values which usually involves concepts of spiritual beings; group celebrations; and ceremonies symbolic of certain beliefs. There are several styles and types of religions systems in the world; cultures are often defined by their religion.

MORALITY is a system for deciding right and wrong action in social situations where competing claims of persons are involved. It deals with questions of should or ought; it is often connected with religion, beliefs, and values.

Moral Reasoning is the mental process by which the person makes moral decisions. The structure of this reasoning process changes as the person develops; it is based on, in sequence:

Coercion: deciding in terms of the wishes of authority or the avoidance of punishment.

Conventionality: deciding on the basis of "proper" action, that which will please others or maintain the social order.

Relativism: decisions are neither "right" or "wrong" in a moral sense; they are based on personal values, which are relative to one's own position.

Principles: decisions are based on abstract social principles such as "justice" and "respect for persons", which come from a social rather than personal perspective.

Empathy is the capacity for experiencing the thoughts, perceptions, and feelings of another, and is important to the developing of morality.

IDENTITY. The answering by the person of the questions, "Who am I?", "What am I good for?", and "What do I want to be?". This process may be conscious or unconscious, and is based on a combination of cultural and individual determinants. It is a process which continues throughout life, and takes different forms in different cultures.

Ego is the internal system of mental structures which the person develops to relate himself to the world. Its emphases and structures change as the person matures.

Maturity is an equilibrium in the identity process, but not necessarily the final point. It is usually associated with adulthood and the assumption of a full working role in society.

Roles. Regular patterns of acting or behaving by individuals as they interact with each other in specially defined capacities are called roles. Roles are learned. They include knowledge of the expectations of others toward oneself.

EMOTIONS are mental and bodily reactions, marked by strong feeling and physiological responses. (Examples are anger, joy, hate, or fear). They are a combination of cognitive factors from moral reasoning, and somatic reactions to social situations.

PSYCHOLOGY: Some Suggested Focus Questions

Behavior

What distinguishes overt from covert behavior?

How can behaviors be classified?

How do we distinguish, "bad" from "good" behavior?

What factors caused this behavior?

How is behavior learned in humans?

How can behavior be changed?

Beliefs and Values

What beliefs seem to be held by this group? How can you tell?

How do the beliefs of groups or cultures differ?

In what way are the beliefs and the actions of the group related?

Is there a difference between expressed belief and belief evident in action in this group?

Which values are most important to this person or group?

Are there differences between reported and actualized values? How can you tell?

Why has this value developed in this person or group?

Which values in the person's set of values could conflict with each other? How?

Religion

What beliefs and values are most important to the religion?

What is the source(s) of values or beliefs in this region?

How is the religion connected with the rest of the culture?

Are group activities a central element in the religion?

Morality

How is right and wrong decided by people of different ages and different groups?

What is taken into consideration when making moral decisions or judgments?

What makes a decision or issue "moral"?

Is morality mostly individually or socially determined?

How can morality be developed in young children? In adolescents? In adults?

Identity

What are the attributes of the self? What characteristics, group memberships, skills, qualities, interests, does the self have?

How is this person different from others? The same? What is the purpose of (my) (his) (her) existence?

Emotions

What emotions are evident in an action or decision?

What are the sources of human emotions?

How are one's emotions related to his values and beliefs? To reason and thinking?

Did emotions help or hinder the resolution of the social problem?

Can man control his emotions? How? Should he?

PSYCHOLOGY	Primary Level
BEHAVIOR	The way we act in all situations is included in our behavior. People have reasons for the things they do.
BELIEFS AND VALUES	All of us have certain things we believe in common. Different cultures have different beliefs and values.
RELIGION	Religion includes beliefs, celebrations, and group activities. People have different religions.
MORALITY	We should think carefully when we decide what's right and what's wrong. "Right" action is that which does not harm others.
IDENTITY	Each person has several characteristics, and is a member of several groups. We can answer the question, "Who am I?" in several ways.
EMOTIONS	Every person has feelings. Some situations are more "emotional" than others.

PSYCHOLOGY	Middle Level
BEHAVIOR	A single act of behavior usually has several sources, some of which we can control and some we cannot. Thinking is an important part of human behavior.
BELIEFS AND VALUES	A person's beliefs, and those of a culture, help to explain for them natural and social phenomena. We must be aware of others' values, which may be different from our own.
RELIGION	There are many different forms and types of religion among people, with different beliefs, ceremonies, and values. Religions are organized systems of beliefs and values. People may have individual and/or group religion(s).
MORALITY	Morals are a person's rules for deciding right from wrong. Sets of social rules are necessary for the smooth functioning of society. Questions of right and wrong may be analyzed rationally.
IDENTITY	Humans have a natural urge to define themselves, their purpose, and their future. One's identity is formed by a variety of cultural, social, and cognitive factors.
EMOTIONS	One's feelings are determined by physical and mental causes in combination. Awareness of others' feelings is important in social interaction.

PSYCHOLOGY	Secondary Level
BEHAVIOR	Human behavior is complex; innate, learned, and automatic responses are combined in actions. Behavior can be controlled through training, by thinking, and by social example.
BELIEFS AND VALUES	Cultural beliefs have developed over many years in response to social needs. Individual beliefs and values should be arrived at through a rational examination of social interaction.
RELIGION	Religion usually considers powers or ideas which go beyond man and beyond the earth. Different religions have developed in response to different social and cultural needs.
MORALITY	Moral decisions may be based on reason in mature humans. Social systems of morality usually develop to allow the society to live safely. Most social issues have a moral component.
IDENTITY	Each person develops his identity throughout life; different stages of life ask different identity questions. The clash of individual vs. social concerns is the chief issue in the development of one's ego.
EMOTIONS	Emotions may be evoked through fear, anger, joy, empathy, or other diverse mental states. Humans can use reason to channel and control their emotions.

SECTION IV: TEACHING STRATEGIES

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A Basic Strategy for Learning Concepts

The success of strategies for teaching knowledge may depend upon accepting the attitude that students must develop their own concepts, generalizations, and models. Such knowledge cannot be "given" to students. They must develop their own internalized awareness through their own experiences with communications and/or content. Teachers can provide the communications and content and guide the student experiences, but they cannot provide students with concepts, generalizations, or models. These meanings must be realized by the students themselves.

The basic process by which students develop abstractions is meaningful associations among examples, cases, situations, or language symbols. By relating newly experienced knowledge elements to each other and to their previously developed understandings, students add to and revise their structures of knowledge. Some students may sometimes realize a new abstraction in an insightful and sudden association, but most students most of the time develop abstractions through assimilation of meaningful associations provided in a number of experiences through an extended period of time. The educator's task is to design and use instructional strategies to provide such experiences.

A basic strategy to help students build their own abstractions through repeated meaningful association of knowledge elements is based on the operational theory of knowledge structure described above. The strategy <u>first</u> requires identification of the concepts, generalizations, and models to be taught. Secondly, it involves finding or developing content which consists of representative communications and examples, cases, or situations of the abstractions which the students can handle. Third, it demands the statement of overt behaviors which utilize the content and demonstrate knowledge of the abstractions. Fourth, it depends upon structuring a series of student experiences with the content which will develop the overt behaviors and the related assimilation of the abstract knowledge.

A SAMPLE

Concept Teaching Strategy

Some concepts can be taught by leading students to categorize examples and non-examples so the students come to associate the distinguishing attributes of the examples with the whole class and with the concept symbol. This strategy first requires identification of the concept symbol, of examples and non-examples which students can comprehend, and of overt behaviors which show knowledge of the concept. The strategy then involves structuring student experiences with the examples and non-examples so that students associate concept attributes with the concept symbol and can achieve the overt behaviors. Student experiences with examples can vary from attainment to reception.

The concept attainment strategy can be illustrated with a plan for teaching the concept of culture to primary students. The teacher decides to use familiar cultural things in communities as examples and familiar natural things in communities as non-examples. The teacher also decides students can show their understanding of culture by identifying or finding examples and non-examples as specified in these overt behaviors:

1. Given the lists or drawings of natural and cultural things, students will be able to identify them as cultural or natural.

2. Given pictures or descriptions of a community, students will be able to identify natural and cultural features.

3. Students will be able to find or draw pictures of or describe natural and cultural features in a community.

In the introductory phase of the attainment strategy the teacher begins by using an overhead projector to show students' drawings in two columns labeled "A" and "B". Column A has pictures of familiar cultural things like a bridge, flagpole, and school building. Column B has pictures of familiar natural things like a tree, a river, and the sun. Students are asked to offer opinions on ways the respective items in groups A and B are alike and on how items in Group A are different from those in Group B. The teacher gives no indication at this stage that student opinions offered are right or wrong.

The introductory phase continues with the teacher presenting additional drawings of familiar cultural and natural things in a community. As the teacher projects each new example or non-example, he asks students whether it belongs in Group A or Group B and why they think so. When all pictures have been presented and grouped, students are asked for their final views on the differences between the two groups. A variety of examples and non-examples should lead students to reject opinions like Group A is city things and Group B is country things and to accept suggestions like Group A is things man has learned to make and Group B is things not made by man. The teacher then verifies such hypotheses and provides the concept symbols by projecting the titles "Cultural: Done or Made by Man" and "Natural: Not Done or Made by Man" for the two columns of pictures.

The introductory attainment is rounded out and reinforced by students compiling lists of other cultural and natural things found in their community. The whole attainment process has been one of grouping examples and non-examples and trying to distinguish key attributes of the concept. Although most students can identify natural and cultural things in a community at the end of this

phase, it must not be assumed that the concept has been developed. Much additional practice with identification of examples and non-examples in spaced and varied contexts is needed to develop association of attributes with the class and symbol "culture." This practice is provided in the developmental phase of instruction with activities like the following:

1. Present pictures of community scenes and how students identify natural and cultural features shown.

2. Select pictures from student textbooks and have the students name natural and cultural features depicted in the community scenes.

The teacher first uses the overhead projector to show the two columns with the labels "Cultural: Done or Made by Man" and "Natural: Not Done by Man" and defines the ideas of culture and nature. Then the teacher shows the students each picture and explains why it is cultural or natural and why it goes in one column or the other. The students watch, listen, and assimilate the explanation and then compile the list of other natural and cultural things they might find in their community.

This introduction by reception involves the same knowledge elements as with attainment and can be highly effective if students are able to associate attributes with the class and symbol. It is very important that either reception or attainment of concepts provides for grouping of examples and the association of attributes. It is also vital that the introduction by reception be followed by the same developmental and evaluation phases used with attainment.

Generalization Teaching Strategy

Generalizations can be taught by leading students to interrelate examples of concepts in cases and/or concept symbols in communications so that they can understand the relationship among the concepts in the generalization. Such strategy requires preliminary identification of representative communications, of cases which students can understand, and of overt behaviors through which students can show knowledge of the generalization. The strategy then requires providing student experiences with cases and communications which result in knowing the generalization and achieving the overt behaviors. As with concept teaching strategy, student experiences with content in learning generalizations can vary from attainment to reception.

The generalization attainment strategy requires essentially that students use cases to test hypotheses about the relation of two or more concepts. The hypotheses may be suggested by the students or presented by the instructor. Procedures may vary from relatively unstructured association of opinions with cases to more formal systems with impressive titles like "inquiry," "problem solving," "induction," or "discovery." The common plan in all is to get students to understand the relationship among concepts by working with cases in which the relationship exists.

A generalization attainment strategy is illustrated in the following example: SAMPLE GENERALIZATION ATTAINMENT STRATEGY FOR INTERMEDIATE SOCIAL STUDIES.

A. Educational goal: Students will understand that major cities are usually located on major waterways, often at the junction of waterways.

B. Behavioral objectives:

1. Given a map of a state, all students will be able to identify positive (and negative) cases of the generalization with 95% accuracy.

2. Given an outline map of an unnamed state showing boundaries and water only, students will be able to indicated with 80% accuracy where five larger cities in the state are located.

3. Given directions to draw a hypothetical area map with five major cities, students will draw all five cities on waterways, locating at least three at junctions of waterways.

C. Content: Positive (and negative) cases

-Location of major cities in Wisconsin
-Location of major cities in Ohio
-Location of large cities in Missouri
-Location of cities in the U.S.
-Location of hypothetical cities
-Location of cities in Georgia

D. Media

-Highway maps of Wisconsin
-Untitled outline map of Ohio water and boundaries
-Transparency of map of Ohio
-Physical maps of Missouri
-U.S. political-physical maps
-Map of hypothetical area
-Untitled map of Georgia water and boundaries

E. Introductory activities:

1. The teacher provides each group of five students with a highway map of Wisconsin and asks how the maps show cities of 10,000 people or more. After students explain how such larger cities can be located, the teacher instructs each group to write on a paper the names of three such cities in eastern Wisconsin, three in the central part of the state, and three in the western part. The teacher then instructs each group to discuss and write a rule about a way all nine cities they have selected are alike besides in size or population. The rule must be based on what they can tell from the maps. Then the teacher directs the groups to list the other large cities that fit their rule and any which may not fit it. After finishing their work, the groups report and compare their rules and cities located. (Other valid generalizations like being linked to other large cities by major highways may be expressed.)

2. The teacher provides students with untitled outline maps of Ohio showing only water and boundaries and tells them to draw circles where they think the five largest cities in the state are located. Students individually or in small groups mark their maps accordingly. The teacher then projects a map of Ohio showing actual location of major cities. The students compare their maps with that projected. The teacher instructs students to count how many of the major cities on the projected map are not on waterways, how many are on waterways, and how many are at the junction of waterways.

F. Developmental activities:

1. The teacher refers small groups of students to a physical map of Missouri and instructs each group to decide where they would buy land to build a great city if they were pioneer settlers and to list reasons for their choices. Student groups make selections, write reasons, report on and compare selections and rules. The teacher marks selections on a projected map and lists reasons on the chalkboard.

2. The teacher asks students to locate on a U.S. map five cities of 10,000 people or more that are not located on a river, lake, or ocean.

3. The teacher instructs students to draw maps of an imaginary country showing highways, railroads, cities, water and land features. Students draw and exchange maps and then criticize the location of other students' cities.

G. Evaluation activities:

1. The teacher gives students an outline map with eight cities on waterways and three not located on waterways and tells students to draw an "S" through any cities that some clown may have put on the map to fool people but which are really not so located.

2. The teacher gives students an untitled outline map of Georgia with only water and boundaries and instructs them to draw circles where five large cities are likely to be located.

3. The teacher instructs students to draw a map with two rivers flowing into a large lake, one river flowing out of the lake to the ocean, and four large cities.

The generalization reception strategy involves the presentation of a representative communication and explanations of cases of the generalization to students. It can be illustrated by comparison with the above example of an attainment strategy. The same overt behaviors, cases, and media are used in reception but the teacher and student roles are different in the introductory phase of instruction. In the reception strategy the teacher first explains the rule that almost all major cities are located on waterways and states some reasons why. He then shows students on a Wisconsin map three eastern, three central, and three western cities of 10,000 people or more and

explains how each satisfies the rule by being on a waterway. The students listen, watch, and assimilate the explanation and then find on the map ten other Wisconsin cities which fit the generalization. The reception strategy then proceeds to the same developmental and evaluation phases as in the attainment strategy.

The developmental phase is vital to either approach. Both the reception and the attainment approach can be effective if they succeed in leading students to realize for themselves the relationships among concepts. Both require the use of cases as well as of representative communication of the generalization.

Model Teaching Strategy

Model teaching strategy is inherently more difficult than concept and generalization teaching strategy. Because the model is greater and more complex, identifying its cognitive components and manipulating them in a pattern of instruction is more complicated. Since the model is more abstract and comprehensive, strategies to build it need more time, energy, material, and imagination.

Models can be taught by leading students to identify model components and to interrelate them as a system of ideas. The strategy requires preliminary identification of model components and relationships among components, of one or more representative communications showing the assemblage of ideas in the model, of situations in which the students can study the model, and of overt behaviors which demonstrate student knowledge of the model. The model teaching strategy then demands plans for student experiences which accomplish two interrelated goals - knowledge of the model components and knowledge of the interrelationship of components in the model. In model reception students first experience the whole assemblage of ideas and then work with individual components and relationships. In model attainment students first have experience with the model components and then build and test the model.

Model reception requires two complementary phases - an introductory advance organization and a developmental analysis of model components in situations. The advance organizer consists of the presentation and explanation of a representative communication of the basic model. The developmental analysis consists of identifying component concept examples and generalization cases in a number of model situations.

A model reception strategy can be illustrated with a plan to teach the model of cultural development represented in Figure 3 to secondary students in a study of the evolution of western culture. The teacher first presents a chart of the model along with a glossary of basic terms used in the model. Students work to achieve preliminary overt behaviors like being able to define the terms and explain the chart in their own words and being able to give examples of the concepts and generalizations of the model in their own environment. Students may also read another representative communication of the model in the form of a textbook chapter which explains cultural evolution. These procedures constitute the introductory advance organization stage of the strategy.

The developmental phase of the reception strategy consists of working with components of the cultural development model in studies in Sumerian, Egyptian, Greek, Roman, and Western European histories. The teacher leads students to identify model components and the relationships among them in each situation. In the first three situations students work with less demanding behaviors like; "if given a description of changes in a culture," "being able to identify examples of difusion and innovation." In the subsequent situations students also work with more comprehensive behaviors involving many if not all model components. For example, if students are given a description of events in a culture, they will be able to use the model to explain in their own words why the rate of cultural change is likely to increase, slow down, or remain about the same, or, if students are given knowledge of a cultural base and description of several innovations developed, they will be able to use the model to explain in their own words why some of the innovations are more likely to be accepted by the culture.

The model attainment strategy, like model reception, requires two phases. The first phase of model attainment is identification of model components in a number of situations. The second phase is development and testing of the model which assembles the model components.

A model attainment strategy can be illustrated with a different plan to teach the cultural development model in a secondary history of western culture course. In the first phase, the teacher leads students to know basic components of the model. In studying Sumeria, students learn the three generalizations at the bottom of Figure 3. In studying Egypt, students relate the concepts of culture, cultural traits, cultural complexes, cultural heritage, cultural continuity, and cultural transmission to unit content. In studying Greece, students also relate the ideas of cultural change, difussion, innovation, and cultural base to content. In developing those components of the model the students achieve basic behaviors like being able to identify examples and non-examples of the concepts and cases of the generalizations in the unit content.

The teacher begins phase two of the illustrative model attainment strategy (development and testing) at the beginning of the study of Roman culture by having groups of students list sets of rules that can be used to explain how and why Roman culture evolved. Student groups report and compare their sets of rules and make lists of the kind of evidence that would tend to support or disprove their rules. As they study Roman history the students use the unit content as evidence to test their rules. At the end of the unit the students critique the validity of their rules of cultural evolution and revise them. Each group subsequently uses its revised set of rules to predict ways that a Western European national culture has evolved and does a case study to test its predictions and the validity of its rules. In this second phase of the attainment strategy students are developing complex behaviors like: "being able to use the model to explain or predict cultural evolution in their own words."

Both model reception and model attainment require considerable time and effort. Both allow students to learn a model by realizing its complex relationship in the contexts of several situations. Either approach can be highly effective if it leads students to make their own associations among components and situations.

SUGGESTED OUTLINE FOR LESSON PLANNING IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Content Area:

Grade Levels:

Focus Questions:

Concepts to be Developed:

Skills to be Developed:

Procedures to be Used:

Teaching Activities:

Student Activities:

Evaluation Procedures:

Materials Necessary:

Homework or Follow-Up Suggestions:

SAMPLE

SUGGESTED OUTLINE FOR LESSON PLANNING IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Content Area: The Family: Roles of Various Members Grade Levels: K-1-2

Focus Questions: What does _____ do for the family?

Concepts to be Developed:

INTERDEPENDENCE: all members are dependent on the work of others.

PRODUCTION: different goods & services are made by different members.

Skills to be Developed:

CLASSIFICATION: of members and types of work done.

OBSERVATION: of data from a photograph.

Procedures to be Used:

Teaching Activities:
1. Display a poster of John Doe's family.
2. Have the students identify the members.
3. For each member, have them make a list of the activities of that member.

Student Activities:
4. Ask which of these activities help the rest of the family.
5. Ask, "What would happen if ____didn't do (one of the activities listed)?'
6. Display a picture of Jose's family, and repeat items 2-5.

Evaluation Procedures: Evaluation: Have students relate these concepts to their own families, by drawing a picture or answering questions.

Materials Necessary: Two Family Posters

Homework or Follow-Up Suggestions: Drawings of families at work.
Research: asking questions of adults and children of other families about these ideas.

SECTION V: THE FUTURE

V. The Future

This volume on concept teaching is only a part of the overall social studies guide which the Department of Education is preparing. Companion volumes are being prepared by the Social Studies Consultant to serve as teaching and curriculum-planning resources for teachers, administrators, and school boards. They will be printed in this same format, on loose-leaf punched paper, for placement into a social studies notebook. The following additional volumes are being planned or prepared at this time.

A. Social Studies Skills. This volume will define and list the research, map, and reasoning skills which are a major purpose of social studies instruction. Suggestions for curriculum placement, methodology, objective-writing, and evaluation will be included.

B. Values in the Social Studies. This volume will outline a comprehensive approach to the teaching of value-laden issues in the classroom and the development of students' moral reasoning. Developmental theory will be related to specific teaching suggestions and curriculum programs in this popular but seriously controversial area of the social studies.

C. Law-Related Topics in the Social Studies. This volume will be a product of the Vermont Legal Education Project which will begin in the 1975-76 school year. It will be a collection of field-tested units for teaching law-related topics in the curriculum, guides to methods useful in this area, and a bibliography of useful curriculum materials.

Additional volumes will be published to meet the expressed needs of Vermont educators in the coming years.

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